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ABSTRACT

The conference proceedings reported in this publication represent the deliberations, problems, and prospects associated with adult education as a field of academic inquiry. The following papers or summaries are included: "Adult Education Research: Issues and Directions" (Deshler, Hagan); "Comparative Perspectives for Research about Societal Influences on Adult Education" (Knox); "Emerging Perspectives in Adult Education Research: Feminist Perspectives" (Hugo); "Needed Research: Social Policy Research in the Field of Adult Education" (Quigley); "Needed Research in Adult Education: A Multicultural Perspective" (Ross); "The Therapeutic Learning Program: A New Computer Technology for Counselors" (Mezirow); "Danger Signals: Trouble Brewing for Graduate Programs in Adult Education" (Kreitlow); "Building a Network of Scholars in Adult Education History: The Electronic Connection" (graphics from presentation by Gadbow, Vertrees); "Faculty Development Task Force 1988" (Caffarella, Briscoe); "Career Development and Adult Education: A Critical Relationship" (Otte); "The Preparation of Human Resource Developers: A Comparative Analysis of Three Case Studies" (Niemi); "HRD Potpourri--Performance Technology and Adult Education as Partnership" (Dixon, Beaudin); "Innovative Approaches to Curriculum Design: Adult Learning and Development and Instructional Strategies for Adult Learners at the University of Texas at Austin" (Watkins); "Emancipatory Research on Adult Children of Alcoholics in the Workplace" (Watkins, Rogers); "Sharing International Research Conferences" (McIntosh); "Minutes of Task Force Business Meeting 1988" (McIntosh); "Reflections on the 1988 Kellogg Researcher's Meeting at Leeds" (Quigley); "Adult Education Dissertations: A Look at Present Practices and Perceptions" (LeGrand, Wood); "Research on Self-Direction in Learning: An Examination of the Methodolatry Controversy" (Guglielmino); "Where We Are and Where We Go from Here" (Hiemstra); "Comments on 'Expanding Methodologies for Studying Self-Direction in Learning'" (Brockett); "Biography and History in the Study of Adult Self-Directed Learning" (Long); "Qualitative Research on Self-Directed Learning" (Caffarella); "A Meta-Analytic Study of Adult Self-Direction in Learning" (McCune, Garcia); and "A Study of the Teaching Strategies Used To Promote Self-Directed Learning among Graduate Students in Adult Education" (Sisco). The "1988 Annual Report of Doctorates Conferred in Adult Education" (Griffith) concludes the proceedings. (MN)

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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
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PROCEEDINGS
COMMISSION OF PROFESSORS OF ADULT EDUCATION

The 1988 proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education was held in Tulsa, Oklahoma, October 31-November 2, 1988. The proceedings of the Conference are reported in this publication and represent the deliberations, problems, and prospects associated with adult education as a field of academic inquiry.

This year's proceedings include the full texts of presentations at the General Sessions, papers and presentations summaries from Concurrent Sessions, and for the first time, the manuscripts from Conference Planning Committee programs. The available Task Force reports are included as part of their perspective concurrent programs.

The compilation and publication of the proceedings up to this point, have been informal and are the result of the efforts of professionally minded Commission members, friends and support staff from respective universities. To all who contributed toward the compilation of this document, the editors express their deepest appreciation.

Charles R. Oaklief
Kansas State University
and
Bonnie Zelenak
University of Missouri-Columbia
Editors

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General Session I

ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH: ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

David Deshler and Nancy Hagan
Cornell University

The primary purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to current disputes and issues surrounding and embedded in research efforts on adult education. Following a brief historical statement of the evolution of adult education research, several major disputes will be discussed in turn. These disputes concern differing perspectives and values regarding: 1) philosophies of science; 2) purposes of research; 3) control and ownership of the research enterprise; 4) strategies appropriate for mapping the field; and 5) research directions that are potentially promising.

Brief Historical Statement

Adult education, although a field of practice dating back throughout history, is a young field of study and has had a rapid increase in research since World War II (Peters and Banks, 1982). The narration of that unfolding knowledge base can be traced through the work of Brunner (1959), Kreitlow (1960, 1970), Knox (1965), and Jenson et al. (1964). More recently the work of Knox (1977), Long, Hiemstra, and Associates (1980), Long (1983), and Darkenwald and Merriam (1982), have continued that tradition of providing research overviews for the field.

The expansion of research has occurred as the number of graduate programs has increased. Approximately 2,500 doctorates in adult education have been awarded since the 1930s. Professors of adult education increased in number from approximately 25 in 1930 to over 275 in 1988. Their research productivity is reported not only in Adult Education, the primary North American research journal for the field, but also in over 300 different journals (Dickinson and Rusnell, 1971).

Several research efforts have been conducted to characterized the changing nature of this expanding knowledge base (Miller, 1967; Dickinson and Rusnell, 1971; Long and Agyekum, 1974; Boshier, 1979; Grabowski, 1980; Peters and Banks, 1982; Long, 1983; West, 1985). From these reviews of articles appearing in Adult Education, published doctoral dissertations, and presentations at sessions of the Adult Education Research Conference (AERC), three somewhat overlapping phases of research history can be discerned. The first phase emphasized atheoretical program description (Miller, 1967; Dickinson and Rusnell, 1971; Long and Agyekum, 1974). The second phase emphasized improvement of research methods and designs patterned after the natural sciences (Boshier, 1979; Grabowski, 1980; West, 1985). The third phase, which is currently under way, emphasizes theory building and definition of research territory (Grabowski, 1980; Peters and Banks, 1982). With this brief overview of the history of adult education research, let us now turn to some of the current issues in dispute.

Which philosophy of science should ground research?

Probably the most fundamental issue among adult education researchers is the issue of what constitutes social science research. During the improvement of methods and research design phase of research development in adult education, an increasing number of adult education researchers appropriated research assumptions of the natural sciences. These positivist philosophical assumptions about science (Popper, 1959, 1965) were fully spelled out in standard social science research works (Campbell and Stanley, 1963); Fox, 1969; Kerlinger, 1973; Smith, 1975) that described science as an empirical process of discovering knowledge. Apps summarized this dominant research paradigm with several assumptions regarding knowledge:

1. We live in a knowable world, which has an objective reality, not the creation of the human mind. Knowledge is out there awaiting human discovery.
2. Knowledge is discovered principally through empirical means, that is, through sensory experience. If one can't see, smell, touch, or hear something, its existence is questionable...
3. The validity of knowledge is based on repeatability...
4. Knowledge is measurable and usually convertible to numbers...
5. Knowledge occurs in patterns. Objects and events in the world are marked by likeness.
6. Objects, events, and people do not appreciably change their basic characteristics over time...This allows researchers to draw generalizations with some assurance that the generalizations will hold for some time.
7. Objects and events may be broken into discrete parts...It is assumed that what is discovered in studying the discrete parts can be added together to provide an understanding of the whole from which the parts were originally derived.
8. The researched is an object for study...the researcher assumes that it is important to maintain distance from that which is researched in order to maintain objectivity.
9. The situation that exists between the researcher and the researched is objective and value-free.
10. Only the researcher has responsibility for discovering knowledge.
11. Because of formal training and experience, the researcher is profoundly more qualified than the researched to discover knowledge (Apps 1979, pp. 179-180).

Beginning in the 1970s, alternatives to positivist perspectives on research began to appear in a substantial number of presentations at the Adult Education Research Conferences. A counterpart to this shift in adult education research occurred among some math and science school education researchers, who began calling themselves constructivists (Goodman, 1978). Other post-positivists began to call their research naturalistic. The debate at that time polarized on what now is considered to be a false dichotomy--the relative merits of qualitative versus quantitative research methods (Howe, 1985). However, underlying the debate were major differences regarding philosophies of science. More research and evaluation described as "naturalistic" continued to be reported. Some of it referred to the grounded theory approach of Glaser and Strauss (1967). Other studies derived their perspectives from the Chicago school of sociology (Bruyn, 1966; Blumer, 1969; Becker, 1970; Denzin, 1970). More recently studies have referred to the "naturalistic" methods of Guba and Lincoln (1981), Lincoln and Guba (1984), Miles and Huberman (1986), and Williams (1986). Others base their research on ethnographic methods of Spradley (1980), Fetterman (1984), Goetz and LeCompte (1984), Whyte (1984), and Agar (1986). Still others describe the merits of phenomenology (Stanage, 1987). Although there is no consensus among the naturalistic researchers, the following statements provide a starting point for appreciating this alternative view of social science:

1. Knowledge is the creation of the human mind. It is out there to be discovered. Rather, reality is created by perceiving through constructs that are selected by the researcher.

2. Knowledge continually changes; new constructs permit new perspectives and subsequent knowledge claims.

3. Knowledge is social; its meaning should be interpreted within specific social settings and traditions.

4. Knowledge is both quantitative and qualitative. the qualitative uniqueness of persons, objects, and events or in-depth internal subjective understanding is as important as their external objective quantitatively described similarities and differences.

5. Objects, events, and especially people are continually changing. The process of that change is as important to study as continuity.

6. Reductionism, or the distortion that comes from breaking objects, events, and people into discrete parts, is to be avoided by emphasizing systems and the viewing of the whole.

7. Intimate, unique, in-depth knowledge is made possible through researcher involvement with subjects rather than only through objective, detached observation.

8. The values of the researcher and the researched (teachers, learners, administrators, policy makers) are essential to the interpretation and the meaning of the research effort.

9. Human subjects participate as researchers in creating knowledge.

Those who hold these post-positivist, interpretative, or naturalistic research assumptions argue that the process of one human being studying another is not as straightforward as the process of one human being studying a potato, a clam, or even a solar system as we would in the natural sciences. To study adult education, distinctive research approaches that are appropriate to the nature of the enterprise are required. Apps (1972), for instance, has argued that the predominant tendency to define all valid research as necessarily empirical (that is, if we can't smell something, see something, touch something, or hear something, it doesn't exist), is too narrow a definition for research in adult education." He called this tendency the "scientism trap" with its adherence to a ritualistic positivist method. Forest (1972) and Farmer (1980) echoed Apps's view that adult educators may be caught up in empiricism and should be open to naturalistic research.

Nevertheless, the positivist or empiricist view is still the most pervasive educational research approach in higher education. One of the reasons that much adult education research is influenced by positivist assumptions is that it is conducted through graduate education programs that are located in schools of education, most of which adhere to the positivist paradigm of science. However, reports of naturalistic interpretative studies are increasing at the American Educational Research Association (AERA) conferences, and at the Adult Education Research Conferences (AERC), as well as in journal publications. Dialogue between those holding these two paradigms promises to be vigorous in the future.

There are several research orientations, according to Collins (1986), that are compatible with naturalistic approaches to social science. They include conceptual (linguistic) analysis, phenomenology, hermeneutics, and critical theory. In the future, we can expect to see a broad range of research approaches, in addition to historical studies, experiments, and descriptive surveys.

Which purposes should research serve?

Should adult education research be focused on applied research, creating knowledge that solves problems of practitioners, or focused on basic research, building a theoretical knowledge base? This tension is partially due to the fact that adult education is both a field of research and a profession. Those who give priority to the field of research view the purpose of research as intrinsic, that is, to create theoretically based knowledge for a discipline. Those who give priority to the profession view the purpose of research as adjunct to the practice needs of the profession, that is, to invent remedies and solve practitioner problems. This gap or tension between basic and applied research priorities is long standing and fundamental to the composition of adult education research.

Kreitlow (1970), in his review of research within the field, described the practical orientation of most of the research efforts reported in Adult Education between 1960 and 1970. At that time he advocated a research focus on such functions of adult education as evaluation, program planning, and methods and techniques, all practical orientations, rather than efforts to build theory. The 1970 Handbook of Adult Education reflected an orientation that viewed research as flowing out of the identification of problems of practice. Kreitlow's (1965) list of needed research also reflects this orientation as does the work of Knox (1965, 1977).

As research productivity increased, a growing concern on the part of some professors for theory generation was strongly expressed at the Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE), of what is now the American Association of Adult and Continuing Education. In 1976 the CPAE established task forces composed of members who wanted to pursue various areas of interest. One group called itself the Research Needs Task Force and set about identifying needs of practitioners in the field that should be given high research priority. Another group of professors, assuming that research in the field would best be served by addressing the building of theory from which practice would be informed, organized a Theory Building Task Force. The two approaches represented the tension between the practical and theoretical perspectives on the purpose of research as well as between different assumptions about how to go about improving practice through research. It was not until the annual meeting of the CPAE in 1987 that the Commission voted to combine the two task forces, after observing that each of the two groups had worthwhile considerations and contributions.

The gap between research and practice is long standing. Most of the researchers who have addressed this gap have advocated a linking of inquiry and application. For instance, Suttle (1972) suggested that successful practitioners should understand their successes as something not achieved strictly in the practice domain, independent of a theoretical base. On the contrary, he declared, the extent that one's teaching practice is successful is the degree one is employing some sound educational theory. Concomitantly, he thought that it was absurd to claim that something might be good in theory but would not work in practice. He thought that researchers should identify the theory behind successful practice. Another name for this is theory-in-use. Perhaps a central task of adult education research should be to integrate theory and practice through research. What is beginning to be appreciated is that both deductive (beginning with theory and testing it) and inductive (beginning with practice and building theory) approaches are legitimate and required (Kenny and Harnisch, 1982). This would suggest that the polarity between theory building and applied research is not an either/or matter.

This move to blend inductive and deductive approaches has led to the practice of action research in adult education. Action research is a form of investigation with interactionist requirements for researcher involvement--not simply as a participant observer, but as an active change agent (Schein, 1987). According to Bryant and Usher (1986), action research has become the preferred style of adult education research in England. They give several reasons for this. The first is that action research more readily facilitates links between research and practice, stimulating practitioner-based inquiry, which is congruent with andragogical models. Second, research funders, desiring greater value for money benefits, are now requiring relevant, practical, and real world research. However, Bryant and Usher (1986) go on to cite inherent problems with the implementation of action research. There are disagreements among stakeholders regarding where to place the emphasis at any given time. There are differences regarding who should be included in the action research effort. As the action research progresses, contracts for change should be revised, but provision of resources to produce the desired change may not be available. There is often a contradiction between the formal reporting required by the funders and formative evaluation that is useful for the improvement of the program. Funders usually require researchers to show results in as short a time as possible, while the client system desired time for reflective analysis and consideration of competing claims and viewpoints. Conclusions are not viewed in the same way by the different stakeholders and audiences. Professional audiences want sound and statistically significant educational findings while clients want immediate program improvement. These requirements are difficult to reconcile. Research reports that accurately portray what happened, yet at the same time adequately reflect the value of the project to all interested parties, are difficult to write.

Positivist-oriented researchers have responded to action research with questions such as: Has action research made research indistinguishable from practice? Are findings recognizably research? Is there anything that is generalizable from this type of research that can be disseminated as "practical knowledge"? Will funders recognize the proper limitations of findings, and not attempt to spread practice fads to inappropriate settings? Is there any academic accountability or peer review for research beyond pleasing the client system? The dialogue has just begun.

Who owns and controls research?

Advocates of participatory research have presented another challenge to the positivist view of research. Positivist research typically begins with researchers selecting or generating theory and then testing it. Participatory research, on the other hand, begins with learners or participants who engage in their own inquiry for the sake of empowerment. Participatory research is an old idea with a new name. Cooperative Extension agents in North America advocated its use in the first part of this century. More recently it has been introduced as an adjunct to popular education and education for development in the "Third World." It has been articulated and promoted by Hall (1975) of the International Council of Adult Education. An annotated bibliography by Ohliger and Niemi (1975) provides an introduction to this literature.

Kassam (1985) defined participatory research as a three-pronged activity aimed at bringing about progressive social change for the betterment of the poor and the oppressed:

> [1] It is an approach to social analysis with the full and active participation of the community in the entire research process; [2] a means of taking collective action for the benefit of those among whom research is conducted; and [3] an educational process of mobilization for development. Their integration gives participatory research its unique strength and power, and it is this very integration that baffles the understanding of the conventional researchers and invokes their discomfort and criticism. (Kassam, 1985, p. 1)

Participatory research advocates (Reason and Rowan, 1981; Hall, 1985; Kassam, 1985; Gaventa, 1985) declared that what was at issue in the research-to-practice gap was ownership and control of knowledge. "Who defines the research problem?" they asked, "Who pays?" They pointed out that those who control research determine the content (what is studied) as well as the outcome of research (who benefits). They asked why some things were studied and not others, and why learners and the powerless were not engaged in their own research. They suggested that the process of information gathering and analysis by researchers leads to learning and skill building (creation of knowledge) on the part of the educated elite, who control the dissemination of findings on behalf of organizations they chose to benefit, while powerless adult education learners and participants were viewed as objects to be studied, but were not enabled to generate useful knowledge in their struggles for social equity, justice, and empowerment. Participatory research advocates charged that the elitist approaches to research contribute to social inequality especially through the growth of the knowledge "industry", with its increasing centralization of knowledge production and dissemination under corporate ownership (Kassam and Mustafa, 1982; Gaventa, 1985).

A common reaction of conventional positivist researchers is that participatory research is fine as a device to encourage reflection, learning, and action, but that it does not constitute research since it does not follow positivist natural science research assumptions. Participatory research advocates typically respond to this criticism by asserting naturalistic assumptions regarding science. However, it should be pointed out that participatory research could be, and probably has been, conducted using positivistic assumptions regarding science. Debate regarding the virtues and limitations of participatory research will likely continue for the immediate future.

Since 1980, participatory exchanges and groups have been established in many countries including Brazil, Canada, England, Germany, India, Italy, Philippines, Tanzania, and the West Indies. They share examples of their effort and encourage investigations of injustice, health hazards, and unfair working conditions.

Defining the research territory: which strategies?

Early efforts to map the territory of adult education research resorted to differentiation of research according to the types of objects or events that were the focus of study. Typical classifications included: (a) adult learning, including self-directed learning (Caffarella and O'Donnell, 1987); (b) instruction and teaching methods, including distance education and educational technology; (c) program development; (d) organization and administrative studies; (e) community development and education for public decisions; and (f) adult education policy studies. Gowin (1981) has identified four commonplaces that, he claims, comprise all education inquiry: teaching, learning, curriculum, and governance. The above categories can be subsumed under Gowin's commonplaces as one way to structure the territory.

Another way of categorizing research was according to setting, i.e., home and family, workplace, recreation site; or according to program area, i.e., adult basic education, literacy, health education, human resource development, educational gerontology, religious education, continuing professional education, self-help groups, etc. Most of the chapters of this Handbook that describe program areas can be viewed as categories of research associated with those types of adult education programs. However, none of these approaches, although helpful in distinguishing the focus of research activity, adequately define the theoretical territory of research.

Boshier (1979) and others, particularly during the middle 1970s, decried the atheoretical nature of much adult education research and called for effort to define the territory theoretically. That call has, for the most part, been heeded. What is in dispute today is how to do it. Five alternative strategies have been discerned in the literature. Using these strategies, researchers have endeavored to: (1) generate theory unique to adult education; (2) build on critical theory; (3) borrow theory from different disciplines; (4) test theory through international comparative research; or (5) synthesize theory through meta-research. Each of these strategies will be described briefly.

Generate Theory Unique to Adult Learning and Development. One of the most long-standing efforts in adult education has been to identify what is unique about adult learning in contrast to child or youth learning. It was reasoned that if this could be accomplished, then the research territory of adult education could then be based on those theoretical distinctions that would serve as boundaries. This effort gave rise to the term andragogy (the practice of helping adults learn) as distinct from pedagogy (the practice of instructing children). The term "andragogy" was first used in 1883 by Kapp, a German (Davenport and Davenport, 1985) and was introduced in the United States by Lindeman in the 1920s (Brookfield, 1984). It was popularized by Knowles (1970). The debate over the adequacy of the concept as a basis for adult education research is unresolved (Davenport and Davenport, 1985; Yonge, 1985). However, parts of the concept have led to other theoretical bases for research. For instance, one of the characteristics of adulthood that Knowles emphasized in his work is self-directedness. This concept has generated a line of research that defines itself as particularly unique to adult learning (Tough, 1971; Brookfield, 1984; Caffarella and O'Donnell, 1987).

Build on Critical Theory. Another characteristic of adults is the capacity to learn through self-criticism and reflective consciousness on the relationship between the self and society. This capacity is generally acknowledged to be quite limited in children prior to adolescence. Those who are constructing theory from this premise claim that learning through reflecting on the self and on the way society defines the self is the essence of adult learning. This process exemplifies the highest developments in human learning and optimally leads to human liberation and empowerment. This line of inquiry, which has come to be known as "critical theory," has been articulated through the sociology/philosophy of the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt, Germany beginning in the 1930's, interrupted by World War II, and continuing to the present.

Reacting to the rise of Fascism and Nazism, on one hand, and the failure of orthodox Marxism, on the other, the Frankfurt School developed "critical theory" to analyze the formal structure of consciousness in order to discover how a dehumanized society could continue to maintain its control over its inhabitants, and how it was possible that human beings could participate willingly at the level of everyday life in the reproduction of their own dehumanization and exploitation, including the domination of positivistic science. These scholars sought to find a clue to understand the nature of society and the dynamics of ideological, cultural, and psychic domination. Critical thought or reflectivity became, for them, the precondition for human emancipation and freedom from the servitude of human existence (Giroux, 1983, 1985). The Frankfurt School, under the leadership of Horkheimer (1972), Adorno and Horkheimer (1972), Marcuse (1972), and more recently Habermas (1971, 1975), have drawn upon the work of Gramsci (1971) who believed that adult education was a crucial vehicle for exposing exploitation through critical reflection on the ideological legitimation of the ruling class (hegemony) (Armstrong, 1987). Giroux (1981) has interpreted the importance of critical theory for schooling, particularly through the idea of the "hidden curriculum," the messages, values, and social practices that schools employ to impart cultural reproduction to support the status quo and social injustice. Freire (1985) is probably the best known adult educator who has drawn implications from critical theory and has popularized these ideas for the practice of adult education for empowerment.

Mezirow (1982, 1985) has drawn upon the work of critical theorists, particularly the work of Habermas (1971). Mezirow (1985, p. 149) holds that the use of discourse or dialogue as a basis for consensual validation of our views of self and society is the central unique function of adult education. He asserts that adult educators should have a function of helping adults free themselves from dependency-producing constraints by assessing relevant experience, becoming aware of cultural contradictions (false consciousness) that oppress them, researching their own problems, building confidence, examining action alternatives, identifying resources, anticipating consequences, and fostering participation and leadership. The most significant task of adult education, for Mezirow, is to "precipitate and facilitate this kind of learning for perspective transformation." This research and theory-building strategy is viewed as the unique task and domain of adults, educators, and researchers.

Based on observations at recent sessions of the Adult Education Research Conference in North America and other research conferences, it is anticipated that an increasing number of adult education researchers will pursue a critical theory perspective. The direction of this theory-building enterprise is unpredictable, since there are many positions and the vocabulary is complex and rich in diverse meaning. However, it is forecast that vigorous dialogue will occur over the importance and nature of this strategy for defining the field of adult education research.

Borrow and Reformulate Theory from Different Disciplines. Jensen, Liverwright, and Hallenbeck (1964) first encouraged adult education researchers to borrow and reformulate knowledge from other disciplines as the major strategy for generating a research base for adult education. Most researchers at that time were university professors who came from various social science disciplines other than education, so it made sense that their disciplinary perspectives would be transferred to their new field of research interest.

Which disciplines have provided theoretical sources for adult education research? In North America the answer has to be psychology, particularly the research thrusts on participation. Cookson (1987, p. 25) complains that "because the contributors to the unique body of knowledge in adult education tend to overemphasize and overly depend upon psychology in particular as the basis of their theoretical and empirical work, the North American literature demonstrates a condition which might be referred to as 'psychological reductionism.' Indeed, we find a remarkable predilection to explain adult education behaviors in terms of the relative salience of a cluster of psychological variables, with only passing reference to one or more social background (sociological) variables, usually selected to stand as proxy measures for more substantive variables excluded from the analysis."

For instance, the structure of sociological theory (Turner, 1978) can make a major contribution to understanding the relationship between adult education and social order, stability or social change, distribution of knowledge, social networking, and interorganization relations. Articles and books on the sociology of adult education are now beginning to appear (Jarvis, 1985). More recently Darkenwald and Valentine (1985) have conceptually moved beyond the psychological variables of motivation for participation to include sociological variables of deterrents to participation.

Disciplines with theories from which adult educators have not extensively borrowed include anthropology, political science, and economics (Hunter, 1974; Cohn, 1979). Other promising fields of study from which adult education may borrow include communications, and systems theory, as well as administrative science. The humanities, including literature, have been mined by a few researchers for insights parallel to those found in the empirical research literature (Merriam, 1983).

All too few adult educators outside of the United Kingdom have become historical researchers; all too few historians have written adult education histories. In either case, the field could benefit from adult education historical research that integrated the relationship between adult learning and historical development and change.

Borrowing and reformulating theory from other disciplines itself is not too controversial. What is at issue is whether such borrowing may produce research that suffers from a view that is narrow, incomplete, discipline-bound, and restricted, as in the case of North America, to a predominant view of reality (Cookson, 1987). Cookson (1987, p. 27) calls for an awareness of parallel streams of research in other field of study, generation of comprehensive integrative theories or models that enable categorization and explanation of relationships between adult education-related behavior and a full range of possible independent or dependent variables, and a creation of a "cumulative" research knowledge base. In other words, we need to move from research bound to a single discipline to multidisciplinary and inter-disciplinary approaches. To be inter-disciplinary is no longer to be innovative; it is the only way we can be responsible to the disciplines themselves. We in adult education have an opportunity of creating an inter-disciplinary atmosphere of intellectual and personal exchange that is simultaneously professional and academic.

Test Theory Through International Comparative Research. One of the major benefits of conducting international comparative research is that researchers very soon become aware that much of adult education in another historical, political, cultural, and social setting very poorly fits conceptual maps created from a single culture. Through comparative research we are made aware of the limitations of generalizations, the inadequacies of categories and concepts, and particularly what we have neglected to research due to our cultural and social blindness and bias. For instance, Rubenson (1982), noting the uneven development of adult education research in different countries, suggested that the neglect of certain questions of research may be due to cultural tendencies to not want to delve into various areas of knowledge. In contrasting adult education research in Sweden with that of North America, he pointed to the Swedish focus on policy studies that reflect the historical role of adult education in the support of a socialist society. Rubenson exclaimed that North Americans have almost reduced the problems concerning their adult education research territory to psychological ones. The North American tendency to view the adult education enterprise as serving individual or organizational interests rather than societal or political interests may have led to the psychological focus discussed earlier. It was Rubenson's international comparative adult education observations that led him to question the "tunnel vision" of what constitutes a map of the research territory of adult education. He challenged North Americans to include political and sociological perspectives in their research on participation rather than continuing to practice a form of reductionism that looks only for psychological motivation explanations for participation. He also pointed out that the Germans, in contrast to the North Americans, lacked empirical investigations. In addition, he declared that most journals in adult education are provincial in their perspectives, reflecting national definitions of the map of the research territory. Comparative research is very likely to challenge limited definitions, research question, methodologies, and research traditions. In short, a more comprehensive map of the research territory is more likely to develop when international comparative adult education research is given a higher priority.

During the 1980s an increasing number of researchers from other countries have attended North American research conferences and sessions of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education (CPAE). The International Task Force of the CPAE also has been active in encouraging international comparative research. These efforts led to an international research conference at the University of Leeds, England in 1988. The conference was sponsored jointly by the Adult Education Research Conference, the Standing Conference on University Teaching and Research in the Education of Adults (Great Britain), and the Canadian Association for the Study of Adult Education. Relationships between European and North American scholars also has been supported by the formation of a Kellogg/International Council of Adult Education Research Exchange Working Group composed of 28 American and Canadian scholars who are committed to conduct international comparative adult education research. Research assumptions and conceptualizations are being tested through their international comparative research activities.

Synthesize Through Meta-Research. Another strategy for creating theoretical maps of the research territory is to synthesize theory through meta-research. Sork (1985) defined meta-research as the "systematic study of the processes and products of inquiry which characterize a discipline or field of study, or, more simply, research on research." To aid the efforts of meta-research, Sork (1985) compiled a listing of adult education meta-research published in North America through 1984. His typology of meta-research includes:

Type I - Inventories of Registers of Research are listings of research studies that range in complexity from simple bibliographic entries that include the name of the investigator, title of the study, and where additional information can be obtained, to compilations that also provide a complete abstract of each study and arrange them by topic for more efficient access.

Type II - General Reviews of Research are analyses of findings spanning the domain of a field of study for the purpose of judging the progress of knowledge production within the field.

Type III - Critical or Interpretative Reviews of Research on Specific Topics are state-of-the-art reviews designed to analyze, systemize, and evaluate studies dealing with a single concept, topic, issue, or question.

Type IV - Research Agendas or Taxonomies of Needed Research are listings of research questions or topics that should receive more attention from researchers and, by implication, from those who fund research.

Type V - Focused Critiques of Research Methodology are systematic analyses and reflective commentaries on the means used to study phenomena of interest to a field.

Type VI - Frameworks or Paradigms for Understanding and Improving Research are studies that are intended to help researchers better understand the nature of the research enterprise and, through such understanding, to improve the process and products of inquiry.

The bibliography that accompanies this typology can be quite helpful to adult education researchers who undertake meta-research.

Space limitations of this chapter prevent the inclusion of examples from all the categories. However, two examples will serve to show the type of work that can be done as a Type III meta-research effort.

Cookson (1987) has outlined a comparison of three different theories for voluntary participation in adult education (Miller, 1967; Rubenson, 1981; Boshier, 1977). Miller (1967) proposed a force-field analysis approach of why people participate, using variables drawn from both psychology and sociology, to explain differences between social class participation. A competing theory of participation is that of Rubenson (cited in Cross, 1981) whose "expectancy-valance model" is based on interaction theory in sociology. Alternatively Boshier's (1977) theory is that motives for participation are related to social, psychological, and other variables, and that motivational orientations are surface manifestations of psychological states that are related to age and socio-economic factors.

Merriam (1987, pp. 187-188) has provided a second example of mapping the territory by comparing competing theories (Type III: Critical or Interpretative Reviews of Research on Specific Topics). She reviewed the research on adult learning theory and clustered the theories according to: (a) those that are based on adult learners characteristics (Knowles, 1980; Cross, 1981);

(b) those that emphasize the adult's life situation (McClusky 1963, 1970, 1971; Knox, 1980, 1985); and (c) those that focus upon changes of adult consciousness (Freire, 1970a, 1970b; Mezirow, 1981). These comparisons highlight differences in conceptualization as well as potential points of synthesis or integration.

Meta-research can be an effective means for generating comprehensive, integrative maps of the territory of adult education research. However, at this stage of adult education research history, it is limited by the lack of sustained and cumulative research efforts since few researchers build from the work of others (Boshier and Pickard, 1979). Hopefully this will change in the future.

It is anyone's guess which of the five strategies for creating maps of the research territory will prove to be the most helpful: (1) generating theory unique to adult education; (2) building on critical theory; (3) borrowing theory from different disciplines; (4) testing theory through international comparative research; or (5) synthesizing theory through meta-research. Perhaps these strategies can be viewed as making a complementary contribution. The first three strategies assist in conceptualizing research. The fourth and fifth strategies assist in integrating adult education research.

Promising Directions for Adult Education Research

Although accurately forecasting human activity is always precarious, it is anticipated that during the next decade considerable progress will occur in attempts to map the territory of adult education research. Moreover, it is anticipated that the focus of research will expand to include greater effort in: (a) historical research; (b) research on lifespan development and learning; (c) research on gender issues; (d) research on education related to economic and social development; (e) research on education for public decisions; (f) research on learning in the workplace; and (g) research on knowledge systems.

Historical Research. An increase in historical research is forecast mostly because it is long overdue. Large expenditures of public money for adult education have occurred throughout the world. The history and patterns of these efforts is likely to spur a historical perspective before continued investment is warranted. It is hoped that those with a historical research interest will increase their networking and publishing efforts.

Research on Lifespan Development and Learning. Although it is anticipated that research on self-directed learning and the unique perspectives of special groups of learners such as young adults, women, minorities, and older adults will continue to be emphasized in North America, this research effort is likely to be combined with lifespan development perspectives within specific social and cultural contexts. The findings from developmental psychologists and educational psychologists, combined with the perspectives of sociologists, will contribute to a holistic understanding of adult development and learning.

Research on Gender Issues. The women's movement has led to wide recognition that gender issues are crucial in all cultures around the globe. All too little is known about gender differences in different cultures and the extent to which they are socially or biologically based. This research area is promising, and the political aspects of it will sustain further research related to adult learning and the formation of public educational policy.

Research on Education Related to Economic and Social Development. Uneven economic and social development, not only in the "Third World" but everywhere, is challenging public officials and researchers to question the relationship between investments in specific types of adult education in relationship to returns. This research agenda will raise fundamental questions regarding the relationship of adult education to unemployment, economic productivity, social class differences, and development theory. Most of this research will take the form of evaluations of adult education public policy and finance.

Research on Education for Public Decisions. Those who have studied social movements in recent years emphasize the increasing role of education as a central strategy, particularly in the human rights movement, the environmental movement, the peace movement, and the women's movement. In addition, the public may become more interested in forecasting, impact analysis, and futures invention approaches in relationship to public decisions. Although research on learning for individual development will continue to be important, research on learning related to decisions for public policy will become increasingly important.

Research on Learning in the Workplace. This next decade will mark extensive efforts in adult education related to the world of work. Greater complexity, diversity, and uncertainty in the workplace in high technology will require more human resource development, particularly in North America. Moreover, China is launching a major adult education effort in the workplace. Most human resource education will not be voluntary, but will be initiated by employers and governments. Research into the nature of learning occurring in workplace environments will become essential to appreciate the relationship between voluntary self-directed adult learning, socialization, technical proficiency, and human liberation and empowerment.

Research on Knowledge Systems. The explosion of knowledge, the technology of knowledge storage and retrieval, the sociology of knowledge, and the spread of knowledge and technology, all will open new issues for the focus of research, as well as new methods for conducting it. Insight into how knowledge travels and who has or does not have access to it is basic for making programatic, large-scale interventions in adult education. This type of research will undoubtedly be helpful to social movements, extension systems, and governments. This research will be based on understanding systems of knowledge, including indigenous knowledge.

Viewed historically, adult education research has come a long way during the last forty years. The types of issues in dispute today, the differences over strategies for defining the theoretical territory, and the promising directions mentioned briefly are evidence of vitality and opportunity for research creativity for the future.

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General Session II

COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVES FOR RESEARCH ABOUT SOCIETAL INFLUENCES ON ADULT EDUCATION

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I. **Purpose of Session** - To explore a comparative adult education research approach, regarding rationale, methods, results, implications. (The main question is, How can a comparative perspective help practitioners strengthen program planning and implementation?)

II. **Brief rationale for World Perspective comparative adult education project.**

  A. Major goal is conclusions to enhance understanding of elite local program coordinators.

    1. Coordinators deal with complex open systems affected by contextual influences that help or hinder the program.

    2. Comparative conclusions contribute to decision areas such as planning, marketing, staffing, financing.

  B. Focus on external relations and societal influences.

    1. In a specific program, which of many complex influences are especially important to consider.

    2. Use conclusions to clarify assumptions, anticipate trends, define modernization, adapt practices, and recognize policy questions.

  C. Cross national comparative analysis helps clarify how societal influences affect the functioning of our own program (in contrast with other benefits of international education).

III. **Methods and Procedures for World Perspective Project** (more details in Miles and Huberman, Qualitative Data Analysis, 1984; Merriam, Case Study Research in Education, 1988).

  A. Guidelines for preparation of case description (a fairly representative selection of about 30 countries was achieved).

    1. Glossary of definitions to approach a common language.

    2. Description of comparable actual programs that an administrator might coordinate, covering similar categories of information about setting, outcomes, process, inputs, evolution, and influences.

B. Local authors familiar with the program and the national culture prepared qualitative case descriptions based on their holistic understanding of the situation (a variety of educational programs for adults were included).

   1. As participant observers, they prepared a naturalistic description based on their perception of reality.

   2. They also tried to explain the meaning of their experience based on their interpretation of complex relationships entailed in societal influences.

C. A review of relevant literature included educational programs for adults, national context, and social indicators. This allowed placing the case description for each country that was included, in that broader context for purposes of interpretation.

D. Experts in area studies and comparative education reviewed sets of case descriptions from countries with which they are familiar to comment on major societal influences.

E. Cluster analysis of both programs and influences helped to identify pertinent relationships and to suggest grouping of case descriptions and promising hypotheses for comparative analysis.

F. Comparative analysis entailed multiple analyses at successive stages.

   1. Analysis and coding of each case regarding a description of how it seems to function in its context, and an interpretation of the conditions under which it seems to do so.

   2. Analytic induction produces hypotheses from each stage to be tested with additional cases during succeeding stages.

   3. Cross validation occurs from multiple analysis from case authors, literature review, and expert review.

   4. Cross case analysis seeks naturalistic explanation and some generalization.

   5. The main result is productive planning and policy questions to raise in the local setting.

IV. Illustrative conclusions from comparative analysis of case descriptions from various countries were provided regarding continuing education for teachers and adult basic education. Each section concluded with implications for planning.

V. General conclusions regarding comparative education

1. Helping practitioners to adapt ideas to their own context.
2. Raising productive planning and policy questions.
3. Building theory from case examples.

General Session III

32

COMMISSION OF PROFESSORS MEETING IN TULSA, OKLAHOMA
EMERGING PERSPECTIVES IN ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH: FEMINIST PERSPECTIVES

Jane M. Hugo
Syracuse University

Florence Howe (1983), writing about the radical potential of feminist scholarship, said: "The scholarship of patriarchy will remain in question until it is corrected by this new surge of research. Whether or not you are in women's studies, its scholarship will affect your discipline." (p. 102)

Mary Hughes and Mary Kennedy (1983), speaking directly to adult educators made this observation about the relationship between women and education: "Adult Education can open windows into exciting ideas in a mind-extending, mind-blowing way, but also, sadly, it can be education for frustration. It gives women the desire for change but the world remains the same. It is difficult for women to 'break out' into a world that is still geared to traditional economic, class, racial and sexual divisions. (p. 261)...As Calderwood and Rossi (1973; p. 395) have so pertinently pointed out: "Education *per se* does not change the status of women with regard to men but merely the status of women with regard to other women.'" (p. 266)

Introduction

This short paper is intended to introduce those attending the panel discussion on emerging research perspectives to feminism, two key concepts that shape feminist perspectives, the connection between education and feminism, and finally, the role feminist scholarship can play in guiding adult education research. The ideas and issues are drawn in broad strokes due to the length of this piece and the complexity of the topic.

Feminism

Feminist thought is diverse. According to historian Gerda Lerner (1986), contemporary feminism is at any one time an evolving doctrine, a movement, a body of knowledge and theory, and/or a set of beliefs. As a doctrine, feminism advocates social and political rights for women equal to those of men. As a movement, feminism connects and organizes women and men to assist in the attainment of feminist goals. As a body of knowledge and theory, feminism creates a space in which people value the study of the lives, experiences, and history of women. As a set of beliefs, feminism offers women and men a world view that guides them in their actions and provides a way of making sense of the world. Further enriching feminist perspectives in any of these facets are women with diversity rooted in race, class, and sexual preference. As a result, we cannot speak of one "feminism" but rather of many feminist perspectives.

Key concepts shaping feminist perspectives

Two fundamental concepts characterize feminist thinking. The first is gender and the second is patriarchy. Gender refers not to a person's sex, male or female, but rather to the socially constructed definitions of what is appropriate behavior for either sex at a given time in a given society. Patriarchy refers to the expression and institutionalization of male dominance over women. As Lerner (1986) points out, patriarchy "...implies that men hold power in all the important institutions of society and that women are deprived of access to such power. It does not imply that women are either totally powerless or totally deprived of rights, influence, and resources." (p. 239) Application of these concepts has shown that Western culture relegates men and women to differential positions in relation to one another (as well as in relation to class and race) and systematically dictates each sex's access to participation in human affairs. In general, women are relegated to a subordinate role, men to a dominant role. Through this process, most women--in relation to men and the activities that men control--have become invisible, marginal, silent, and repressed.

A feminist perspective is not neutral just as the perspectives that maintain sexism are not neutral. Those people working out of a feminist perspective seek to identify sexism in our society and work to eliminate it. Individuals who are developing feminist theory and action are committed to improving the status of women.

Education and Feminism

Like others who critically study society and culture, feminists have identified education's ability to maintain patriarchal arrangements as well as education's potential to aid in the transformation of individuals, disciplines, and society. A feminist transformation of education is not simply, as Charlote Bunch noted, an "add women and stir" process. Feminist sociologist, Dorothy Smith (1987) has pointed out the control education holds over ideas; symbols; images; socialization; acceptable ideology; and the acceptability of ideological sources like books, newspapers, journals, and people. Equal access of women to education is only part of the issue. Another part is the very nature of the education women are offered and who creates the knowledge available to them.

> When we look at where women are in the educational system, our focus should go beyond issues of social justice. Equality of opportunity is only one aspect of the problem. I want rather to draw attention to the significance of the inequalities we find for how women are located in the processes of setting standards, producing social knowledge, acting as 'gatekeepers' over what is admitted into the system of distribution, innovating in thought or knowledge or values, and in other ways participating as authorities in the ideological work done in the educational process. (pp. 26-27)

Research is one of the principal ways in which knowledge is created, legitimized, and distributed in adult education. In her book Learning Liberation: Women's Response to Men's Education, Jane Thompson (1983) named several patriarchal attitudes found in adult education. They were as follows:

- a slow response to women's issues
- the reinforcement of traditional assumptions that mitigate against women's progress towards equality
- the transmission of cultural values and knowledge that supports the dominant group and male-centered knowledge written and promoted by an academic tradition which gives high status to its own
- a reluctance to question the social conditions that give value and prestige to some ideas, interests, and achievements but not others
- the tendency to leave women out of the discourse that construct the knowledge.

The male-bias in these attitudes affects the research and theory building within the field. Assumptions as to what is worthy of study go unchallenged. Methods of data collection suited to certain types of studies dominate the research process. The conceptualization of the questions guiding research fits the established research paradigms. Earlier studies of women disappear from the scholarly tradition that is passed on from one generation of adult educators to the next. (DuBois, Kelly, Kennedy, Korsmeyer, & Robinson, 1985) As adult educators, we need to examine the interrelationship between our research, our practice, and the place of women in our society.

The role of feminist scholarship

Feminism's academic voice is found in individual disciplines as well as in the separate field of Women's Studies. Adult education can draw upon almost twenty years of interdisciplinary feminist scholarship as it comes to grips with its patriarchal traditions. Feminist theory, feminist research methodology, feminist pedagogy, and a feminist research agenda ranging from compensatory scholarship to the transformation of all disciplines could inform the development of a feminist perspective in adult education and guide subsequent scholarship. The same diversity found within the feminist movement can be found within Women's Studies. No single approach, feminist or not, will answer the diverse needs of women.

Conclusion

As we consider feminist perspectives as an "emerging" research force in adult education, we need to understand that in doing so we are not simply entertaining a new thematic avenue in adult education. We are opening our minds to a broader world view; accepting new research roles and agendas; and creating a new partnership between education, women, and social change.

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NEEDED RESEARCH: SOCIAL POLICY RESEARCH IN THE FIELD OF ADULT EDUCATION

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> "Under democratic conditions authority is of the group. This is not an easy lesson to learn, but until it is learned, democracy cannot succeed."
> -Eduard Lindeman

Introduction

Hoggart (1987) has made the observation that "very few governments respect the objective search for truth, free speculation or the integrity of the individual conscience...few countries have those interlaced middle layers of critical comment which give a characteristic texture to societies which claim to be democratic" (p. 54). From this perspective, we may well ask what role the field of adult education has played in helping to build "interlaced middle layers of critical comment" in the formation of social policy in our society? The ERIC data base currently contains in excess of 30,000 entries with "education" and "policy" in their descriptors, with more than 2000 entries being made per year since 1981. These, however, are mainly concerned with school education issues, not adult education social policy issues. Griffith (1976) noted that "despite the programming ingenuity of [adult education] planners, the limits to their programming are set by political decisions in which they rarely take part" (p. 270). He added, "if adult educators are to play a significant role in determining the nature and extent of adult learning opportunities they must increase their involvement in the political process of shaping policy" (p. 270). However, there is little evidence to suggest that the field has in fact fulfilled Griffith's call, made over twelve years ago.

It is proposed here that if the field of adult education is to seriously contribute to the "texture" of critical comment in social policy formation, we need to do more than "lobby" if we are to increase our involvement in the policy processes. It will be suggested that we must take a larger role in the formation of social policy affecting adult education in society and in our own destiny at the policy level--but on the strength of research in the social policy area. It is research which particularly distinguishes academic contributions, not advocacy--in fact, academics are notoriously ineffectual in attempts to lobby government. However, if our contribution is to be built on policy research, our field lacks a base of systematic inquiry of the complex "philosophical, moral, psychological and ideological" (Griffin, 1987, p. 9) factors which contribute to social policy.

Adult education in North America has traditionally focused on issues which derive from an "individual's benefit rationale"--issues which attend to learner and practice-oriented questions. This has served to distance us from policy. In fact, Finch (1984, p. 91-94) has found that the "individual's benefit rationale rarely figures in policy formation. If indeed the individual figures at all, it is typically as one small aspect of the "society's benefit rationale"--the key component which actually underpins social policy formation. In this respect, our research is "out of synch" with the macrocosmic considerations of social policy formation. By centering our research on individual learning and practice in the profession, by working out of a narrow frame of reference of "humanistic psychology and sociological functionalism" (Griffin, p. 253)--our field has had little research to contribute to social policy formation on a state, federal or international level.

The position taken in this paper is that 1) If adult education had a comprehensive conceptual framework which located the various models of social policy within sociological theory, and 2) which then linked these to our component streams of practice in adult education, we would have a conceptual starting point for social policy research. Beyond this point, 3) to more clearly identify and analyze policy within this framework, it is proposed that a taxonomy of the alternate mechanisms characteristic of policies within the framework could be particularly helpful. Thus, we first need a "map of the social policy territory" linked to practice and, then, the subsequent research if we are ever to play a serious role in developing the "interlaced middle layers" of critical comment in the adult education social policy arena. To bring the issues even closer to home, if we are to gain a larger role in the policy decisions affecting our own field, it is proposed that our research must begin to address specific policy issues in a systematic manner which can assist, redirect or effectively halt ill-advised social policy. However, without a reasoned basis of research to build upon, ours will continue to be but one more "amorphous and uncoordinated" (Griffith, 1976, p. 295) educational organization among the many heard by policy makers at the governmental level.

This paper will attempt to sketch this proposed map by: 1) Outlining a model for policy analysis using a recent framework by Griffin (1987), 2) linking this model to adult education component streams of practice, 3) grounding both of these in sociological theory, 4) proposing some components for a taxonomy of mechanisms within each social policy model and, finally, 5) suggesting research issues as they are interpreted and reinterpreted across each policy model.

Social Policy defined and its significance in Adult Education

At its broadest definitional level, social policy is the attempt to move from a perception of "what is" in society to the conception of what "should be" through governmental and legislative action. The perception of "what is" is typically driven by concern with those issues arising out of two archetypal conditions in society: 1) scarcity of resources and

2) social inequity. The conception of "what should be" inevitably results in the attempt to redistribute both valued resources and what Griffin (1987) calls "life chances." A more specific definition is given by Finch (1984) who says social policy is "action designed by government to engineer social change" (p. 4). Where education, specifically, is concerned, Silver (1980) has said that social policy is "the attempt to use education to solve social problems, to influence social structures, to improve one or more aspects of the social condition, to anticipate crisis" (p. 17). Common to all definitions, broad or specific, however, is the reality that social policy implementation inexorably involves a degree of intervention in the lives of citizens. This may mean much needed "welfare" for some but, on the other hand, intervention may be seen as unjustified "ill fare" for others. Redistribution of resources and life chances means both sacrifice and gain. It is perhaps for this reason more than any other that societies have long had love-hate relationships with their own governments--democratic or otherwise.

For the field of adult education more specifically, there is increasing evidence that government is intervening in adult education programming more directly and more often for social policy purposes--for purposes of engineering social change--as Finch defined it. Adult education is increasingly becoming a "managed" instrument for lifelong learning policy purposes (eg. Jarvis, 1985); Ohliger & McCarthy, 1971; Stylus, 1984). This growing trend may be observed in recent years in America, Canada and the U.K. in the move to social policy which engages increased levels of action designed to engineer change in the economic and unemployment areas of governmental planning. This move has made its impact felt in our field with governmental policies such as manpower and strategic planning, policies designating funding levels for human capital investment and the increasing demand for productivity, excellence and accountability measures. Since, as Griffin notes, "the provision of adult education is, in the end, an outcome of the kind of social and political processes which [social policy] models purport to reflect" (p. 22), social policies over the past decade have altered the nature and direction of adult education in ways we--the "engineered"--have yet to fully understand. Thus, for society and our own field, social policy research and effective dissemination of this research seems vitally important.

As a way of organizing a "map" for social policy research, the following three part table outlines several areas for research. It is adapted from the work of Griffin (1987), Jarvis (1985) and Mitchell (1984), and brings a synthesis of recent work in both the United States and Britain. The first figure outlines the broadest conceptual model, outlining policy, practice and sociological theories. Figure two takes this model into more specific examples of policy mechanisms and characteristics. Finally, the last figure suggests areas for social policy research across the model. It depicts how various areas of concern for policy-makers would constitute the same area of research. Thus, the different social policy models reconstitute issues in contrasting ways--ways which an adult education researcher should be aware of and sensitive to.

Figure 1: Models of Social Policy, Adult Education Practice, Sociological Theory

A. Social Policy Models	MARKET MODELS	PROGRESSIVE-LIBERAL-WELFARE MODELS	SOCIAL CONTROL MODELS
B. Adult Education Component Streams	VOCATIONAL	LIBERAL	LIBERATORY/SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION
C. Sociological Theories	STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONALISM	<-------------------->	CONFLICT THEORY

Following is a taxonomy of mechanisms and characteristics linking to the above:

Figure 2: Elements of a Mechanisms Taxonomy

Social Policy Models	MARKET MODELS	PROGRESSIVE-LIBERAL-WELFARE MODELS	SOCIAL CONTROL MODELS
basic character	EXCHANGE	SYSTEMS/FUNCTIONS	INTERACTION/CONFLICT
metaphor	marketplace	organism	cooperative
ordered by	incentives	hierarchy	alliances
stabilized by	negotiation	homeostasis	power balance
motivated by	utility	need	interest priority
activated by	bargaining	cooperation	interest conflict
analysis unit	rational agents	functional structures	formal structures

Following is a taxonomy of salient research topics depicted by each model:

Figure 3: Areas for Social Policy Research within the three models

	MARKET MODELS	PROGRESSIVE-LIBERAL-WELFARE MODELS	SOCIAL CONTROL MODELS
MACRO-ISSUE	ECONOMICS & HUMAN CAPITAL FORMATION	STRUCTURES & MERITOCRACY	POWER & EQUITY IMBALANCES
Planning issues	manpower forecasting	long/short term planning	power distribution
Budget issues	investment prioritizing	barriers costs	special programs
Stakeholders	target group analyses	needs assessments & analyses	gender/race issues
Impact issues	input/outcome measures	access/participation improvements	restructuring changes
Process issues	economics of delivery	governance questions	decision processes
Evaluation issues	accounting for "value added"	formative/summative assessments	power redistribution

Social Policy, Adult Education and Sociological Theory

A. Utilizing the three social policy models shown in Figure 1, which have their basis in the earlier work of Titmus (1958, 1968) and Pinker (1971), "market models" classically depend upon the encouragement of individual and economic freedom for increased self reliance. As Titmus (1974) puts it, those who operate from this model, or paradigm, seek freedom from officials and bureaucrats who "cannot know best" (p. 33). Market models are founded on utilitarian principles which argue that denial of individualism is denial of freedom and initiative. This model has a long tradition in America, from the Jeffersonian argument for minimal government to Thoreau, who stated in 1906: "'That government is best which governs least;' and as I should like to see it...'That government is best which governs not at all;'" (1965, p. 85).

Today, maximum individual, voluntary and private sector involvement is the favoured approach of conservative governments such as the Conservative Party in Britain, Progressive Conservatives in Canada, and the Republicans in the United States. Market models have prevailed for adult education in recent years with an increasing demand for self-financed education--the escalating fees structure of Britain's Open University being a case in point. More competitive, measurable criteria for excellence in education have been introduced to higher education and vocational education in recent years in Canada, the U.S. and Britain. The prevailing perception that adult education is a marketable commodity which can and should assist economic revitalization is illustrated by the recent guidelines on the availability of research funds in Canada. Historically designated for direct use by higher education, research funds are now channeled to the private sector by the federal government to encourage universities to bid for funds to industries. The rationale is to ensure that higher education conducts industry-responsive applied research. Jarvis's (1985) point that "the development of new knowledge in the discipline is itself subject to the control and direction of those who control funds" (p. 177) is relevant here.

Founded on a utilitarian philosophy and based in structural functional sociological theory, this social policy model often looks to vocationalism and professionalism in adult education to enhance social productivity. "Society's benefit" as a rationale is dictated by the extent to which programs or research will either enhance productivity or reduce duplication and waste. As Jarvis states it, "governmental funding is much more likely [in this model] when educational projects are clearly designed to ensure that the state is the main beneficiary" (p. 174). Questions of participation are framed as questions of manpower planning with target group research and economic return as areas of first concern. On the level of research, market models "seek general principles for analysis in the relationships ordinarily found in the marketplace" (Mitchell, p. 140). The archetypal issues of equity and the redistribution of life chances are also approached on utilitarian grounds. Illiteracy and (in America) programs through adult education for the homeless are flourishing--not out of altruism but out of investments in human capital formation for purposes of economic/employment growth. Unlike the programs of the 1960's and 1970's, literacy campaigns conducted in these social policy models primarily seek the assistance of the volunteer sector and industry--always the preferred actors in intervention in this model.

It is noteworthy that this social policy shift to market models has had a clear effect on research trends within school education. Studied in the U.S. by Mitchell (1984), the finding has been that education policy research has gravitated towards three broad areas: 1) manpower forecasting and vocationalism, 2) human capital formation and the politics of economic education, and 3) education productivity functions (p. 150). Thus, school education research has tended to follow the policy trends (and funds) in education in the U.S., but it is significant for adult education to see that the research in education has rarely attempted comparative research across social policy models. Instead, education policy research has largely mirrored the models themselves. This raises a critical question for adult education. For adult education social policy research purposes, today's prevailing governmental interest is in research which assists needs prioritization and seeks to investigate the effectiveness of human capital investment. The question for our field is whether we will choose to conduct research across models to compare and contrast the effectiveness of particular policy mechanisms in attaining their stated goals, or whether we will follow the funding opportunities and add to, rather than challenge, the assumptions underpinning these models?

Progressive-Liberal-Welfare Models

Goodwin (1982) lists individualism, consent, freedom of economic choice, meritocratic social justice and high tolerance of dissent and non-conformity as primary characteristics in this model. Governmental intervention is justified only to the extent that individual or group freedoms and conditions are enhanced. An illustration of this model at work is the 1973 Russell Report in the United Kingdom which claimed that the value of adult education "is not solely to be measured by direct increases in earning power of productive capacity or by any other materialistic yardstick, but by the quality of life it inspires in the individual and generates for the community at large" (D.E.S., p. xi). The assumptions were that individuals and communities within a society based on co-operation and interdependence could benefit collectively and, in turn, society as a whole could benefit as well. In the market models, such would be considered vague and economically "unmanageable" as policy.

An example of how policies can change and impact adult education is seen in Canada's Employment and Immigration Commission. This federal agency was created in 1967. As the (then) Liberal party Minister, Jean Marchand, stated in the Ottawa legislature, CEIC was "to provide a second chance for the people who need it most. These are the men and women who missed the chance to acquire a skill during their youth or whose skill has been made obsolete by technological change." The policies which followed were implemented through community colleges and school boards--action consistent with the liberal-progressive-welfare model. Ten years later, a 1977 Senators' policy review of Adult Basic Education ("ABE") named one of the main ABE funding components (Basic Training for Skill Development) "a major soft spot" (p. 13) in federal funding. This program had been delivered for ten years through institutions, primarily, and was now seen by the prevailing market model hegemony as providing "education" rather than "training" for "a far wider range of clients than envisaged in 1967" (p. 14). Thus, the all-inclusive liberal program had become "too educational." Funding began to be reduced shortly thereafter to institutions conducting ABE. This is not to say that funds to the undereducated have decreased overall under the market model of the Progressive Conservatives party. Today, Canada is experiencing what may be the most extensive funding in its history for vocationalism and professionalism opportunities. In keeping with its values, this model is today utilizing the private sector and volunteers in both delivery and advisory capacities. The question of the impact and comparative effectiveness of these two contrasting policy approaches to essentially the same educational issues has yet to be researched.

Thus, for research purposes, prevailing political ideologies and their attendant sociological theories in the U.S., Canada and the U.K. dictate that archetypal issues concerned with the redistribution of resources and life chances in the adult education policy domain will be framed by governments around questions which illuminate policy for effective investment in human capital. However, if critical comment is to prevail, if adult education research is to objectively inform and advise, comparative analysis across social policy models is needed.

Social Control Models

Social control models, as termed by Griffin, are given some consideration within the divergent ideologies of Britain's Labour Party and within the Canadian New Democratic Party as elected in various Canadian provinces since the 1930's. There is no political equivalent of significance in the United States although American scholars have made substantive contributions to critical education and critical sociological theory. Social control models are frequently informed by sociological conflict theory and, although there are a range of orientations within these models, references to Marxist theory are frequent (Griffin, 1987). As interpreted by The New Sociology of Education, Giroux (1983) has categorized the broad perspectives inherent in both the market model and liberal model into three categories: 1) economic reproduction, 2) cultural reproduction, and 3) political/hegemonic reproduction.

Within adult education, practice has tended to range from reformist, frequently Frierian-influenced community-based ideologies, which see need for counter-hegemonic struggle, to a tradition of radical socio-economic reconstruction which adopts a class struggle approach to societal change. Whether Marxist or non-Marxist in orientation, however, as Giroux states it, education is seen as being "not about equality but inequality" (p. 110). For adult education research purposes, equity is the primary issue, not meritocracy. The issues of cultural, economic and political reproduction and, of late, the emerging theories and research on resistance (eg. Giroux,. 1983, 1984; Quigley, 1987; Willis, 1977), necessitates research in this model which considers the impacts of social policy on equity and the denial of equity in adult education. Griffin (1987), pp. 119-126) has reviewed the literature and such questions as the marginality of the elderly and of women in adult education, the ideology inherent in leisure adult education, and the limitations of conducting theory development out of the narrow framework of "humanistic psychology and sociological functionalism" (p. 253). What is still required in this model, however, is more extensive research beyond these areas which investigates the wider impact of social control models on equity. This might be accomplished with cross-model comparative research to provide a basis for policy comparison.

Conclusion

Niemi and Nagle (1979) have observed that, "in every educational setting, an inevitable tension persists among three sets of needs: those felt by the learner, those defined by professional educators, and those derived from institutional and societal expectations" (p. 141). The first two areas have dominated adult education research and the field has little to contribute to the larger issues around social policy formation. If, as Bernstein (1971, p. 47) maintains, the way "a society selects, classified, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control," (p. 47) it would be fair to say that the field of adult education has more often played the role of willing accomplice for policy implementation rather than either informed advisor or full participant in policy formation. This situation has had deleterious effects (see for instance Robert, 1982; Stylus, 1984; Thompson, 1980) in both industrialized and developing countries.

The challenge to researchers in the field of tomorrow, I believe, is if they can begin to bring a much wider analytical framework to today's research questions by including social policy theory and its attendant sociological theories. I would suggest that full participation of adults in the decisions which affect the policies governing America, Canada and the U.K., and control over our own destiny as a field, will not be realized until we begin to develop "those interlaced middle layers of critical comment" (Hoggart, 1978, p. 54) based on objective research in the social policy domain and until we begin to seriously influence the formation, implementation and evaluation of social policy through this same research.

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NEEDED RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION: A MULTICULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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(Draft prepared for the Annual Meeting of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education--Nov. 1, 1988)

Introduction

The major theme for this year's meeting of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education is "Adult Education Through Personal and Economic Development." It is only fitting, in a year when much of the discussion of America's concerns about economic development has focused on the preparedness of an increasingly multicultural workforce, that we as professors of adult education stop to consider our role in conducting the research that will assist others to best prepare such a workforce. Harold Hodgkinson (1985) can be credited with bringing to the awareness of many educators the demographic trends which suggest that by 2010 the "minority" populations will become a majority in certain segments of the country. The Hispanic population has grown 30% since 1980, a rate five times faster than the rest of the population (Pear, 1988) and at least one state system of higher education has seen the need to respond to the growing clientele (Fields, 1987). Already the 25 largest public school systems have a "minority majority," and 26% of the children enrolled in public schools are non-white. The concerns of educators serving an increasingly diverse population can be seen in special issues on equity and cultural pluralism appearing as early as 1981 for education journals like Theory into Practice, Educational Research Quarterly, Educational Leadership, and more recently Harvard Education Review. On a weekly basis articles in Education Week address relevant issues or describe programs which successfully serve minority children and involve their parents in creating more effective schools. In the field of higher education, the Chronicle of Higher Education regularly lists data on the status of various minority populations in higher education, and provides a forum for debate on the progress or lack of progress for minority students and faculty during the post-Bakke affirmative action era. The American Council of Education has begun an annual summary of the status of minorities in higher education. Outside the formal educational arena, a recent issue of Business Week concentrated on the training needs of a multicultural workforce.

Perusal of the table of contents of adult education journals suggests this topic has yet to garner our attention. The first challenge to writing about the status of education of minority adults is the dearth of statistical data regarding their participation in specific categories of adult education. The next challenge is the paucity of research previously published in adult education journals regarding minority populations. While this pattern has shown some improvement in recent years (Heisel & Larson, 1984; Martin, 1987; Mc Gee, 1984; Spaights, Dixon, & Bridges, 1985), one must often look to journals in the social sciences or specialized journals like the Journal of Negro Education to get a more complete picture of the involvement of minorities in adult education. While it might be hypothesized that research on minority populations has been systematically or inadvertently excluded from our major publications, an equally plausible explanation for the lack of such publications is the paucity of research conducted in this area by scholars in the field of adult education. Again and again we find qualifications placed on the generalizability of our research findings because of the failure to include adults who are diverse in ethnicity and class. With some frequency we find among recommendations for further study a suggestion that similar research be conducted with adults who are non-white, non-male and/or non-middle-class. Yet, by an large our research continues to reflect the predominant patterns of participation in formal adult education. For the most part non-white men and women, along with the non-middle class and women in general, remain a group set aside "for future study."

As this paper proceeds I will: (a) discuss some of the reasons why this research should occur in the near rather than distant future; (b) propose a number of the questions we might seek to answer; and (c) consider some of the methodological issues surrounding such study.

Rationale for research focus

Surprisingly little data are available on the participation on non-whites in various types of adult education. Currently, data collection procedures make it difficult to make more than global statements about minority adult participation. National Center for Educational STatistics data tell us that 8.1% of Blacks participated in adult education in 1984--up from 6.5% in 1978, but not significantly above the 7.8% participation rate in 1969 (Momeni, 1981; Bureau of the Census, 1987). The 1984 participation rate for Hispanics was similar to that of Blacks at 8.2%, down from 8.6% in 1981. Meanwhile, white participation increased from 13.8% in 1981 to 14.6% in 1984 (Grant & Snyder, 1986; Bureau of the Census, 1987). Although Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) point out that differences in rates of participation between whites and Blacks are more adequately explained by previous educational and income levels, the disproportionate representation of minority adult among the poor and poorly educated makes this more an academic than a practical distinction.

The picture is not likely to improve in the immediate future. Minority groups in this country have often viewed education as a vehicle for upward mobility. Yet the faith of some in this part of the American Dream seems to be shaken. We hear of a hopeless "underclass" trapped by cross-generational poverty (Alter, Brainsford & Springer, 1988); "Worsening Plight," 1988). Gains in level of education have not been accompanied by commensurate gains in employment and income. In 1970 median levels of education were as follows: White 12.1, Black 9.8, Hispanic 9.1. In 1984, they had risen to White 12.7, Black 12.3, and Hispanic 11.5 (Bureau of the Census, 1987). Yet, despite the progress of a growing middle class minority population, minorities overall have experienced economic losses (Ball, 1988). Tiende and Diaz (1987) note that Puerto Rican family income decreased 18% between 1979 and 1984, compared to a decrease of 14% for Blacks and 9% for Mexican Americans. Poverty is an acute problem for female-headed minority families. The median income of Black female-headed households at $8,648 in 1984 was just 57% of the income of white female-headed households (Williams, 1987). Hispanic women in 1983 earned a median income of $11,874, compared to white women at $14,479 (Hernandez, 1987). Yet, the situation for minority families with two parents working is not much better. Twenty-nine percent of Black married couples with both partners working earned incomes below the poverty level in 1984, while only 17% of white working couples earned similar incomes (Williams, 1987). Contrary to affirmative action mythology, even Blacks who hold associate, bachelors, and master's degrees earn less than their white counterparts ("Educational Attainment and Monthly Income," 1987).

A recent report titled "The Forgotten Half: Non-College Youth in America" documents the findings of a 19 member two-year panel Commission on Work, Family and Citizenship funded by the William T. Grant Foundation (Viadero, 1988). While this report raises striking issues regarding the economic fate of all youth seeking career entry without a college degree and urges educational interventions specifically targeted to this population, it is worth noting that worsening economic conditions for this age group seem to have differentially affected whites and non-whites. Although the percentages of 20-24 year old males with annual earnings at or above the three-person poverty level have dropped for all ethnic groups, Blacks and Hispanics have been hit harder (1973 levels: White 60.54%, Black 55.2%, Hispanic 61.1%; 1985 levels: White 48.5%, Black 24.9%, Hispanic 35.4%). Along with such depressing reports of the conditions for youth seeking no further education past high school, we hear that the rate of college attendance among Blacks high school graduates has declined from 34% to 26% since 1976. There seems to be an obvious clientele in need of some form of postsecondary education, and worthy of the attention of adult educators.

Although the research issues which adult educators need to address extend far beyond those directly related to the economic incentives for further education, at a conference focusing on economic development and in a year marked by the release of such significant reports, this seems a logical starting point for discussing the imperative for an improved understanding of minority adult education needs. Obviously, many minority adults do not live under economically disadvantaged circumstances, and adult educators would be wrong to assume such. But it is more likely to be the relatively well-educated and upwardly mobile minority adults who are already participating in adult education programs. An improved understanding of minority adults as learners, however, is necessary if we are to serve a larger proportion of this growing segment of the population. If we wish to remain true to the progressive roots of American adult education it behooves us to extend our research agenda to include questions pertinent to planning educational programs which more effectively service a culturally diverse American population.

For the convenience of discussion the term "minority" will be used in a general sense although logical arguments can be put forward against the use of this term. Increasingly terms like "people of color" have come into use to denote a more positive form of reference to groups marginalized in U.S. society but representative of the majority of the world's population. In the U.S. context the term "minority" has typically been applied to Blacks or African-Americans, various Hispanic groups, Native Americans, and various Asian-American groups. Data and program descriptions are most readily available regarding Black Americans, with increasing attention recently to Hispanic groups. With regard to Hispanics, as with Asians, it is especially important to note that many different cultural groups exist within these broader categories, with the most predominant Hispanic populations being Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cuban Americans. The use of the generic term "minority" here is not meant to suggest that research conducted with one group can be generalized to all others. Rather, studies should be planned either with a focus on one clearly defined group or with appropriate representation from the various groups to which the investigator hopes to generalize. When working in a qualitative research framework, efforts to purposely include more diverse populations will increase the likelihood that the theories generated will apply to a broader spectrum of the human experience.

Areas of investigation

In the following sections I propose a number of key areas for investigation and critical questions in each area. This list is meant to promote discussion rather than to suggest a fixed research agenda. Hopefully such a collection of questions can trigger further consideration regarding which problems are of greatest priority and how best to investigate them. Although the first area included in this list is not one typically studied by adult educators, it seems essential that we study the earlier learning experiences of minority adults to better understand any group patterns of participation and nonparticipation in various forms of adult education.

Schooling and early learning experiences

1. What kinds of early schooling and learning experiences are reported by those minority adults participating in formal adult education?
2. Which individuals or dimensions of family support for education seem critical as influences increasing the likelihood of continuing participation in formal education?
3. What role is played by supportive teachers or counselors in encouraging adult learning efforts?
4. What role is played by nonsupportive teachers in discouraging adult learning efforts?
5. How have obstacles been overcome by educationally successful minority?

Adult development

1. Do adult life cycle patterns of minority adults differ from those of whites (with social class controlled) in timing, sequence, or quality? How?
2. Are there unique developmental tasks faced by minority adults (e.g., preparing children for life in a world where they are likely to face discrimination)?
3. Are gender differences in developmental patterns or stages similar to those observed in the majority population? Less observable? More observable? What special developmental issues are faced by women of color as a result of interactive effects of racism and sexism?
4. What, if any, unique life events are reported by minority adults? Are there differences in the extent to which particular cultural groups experience particular life events?
5. Do learning and coping strategies used to adjust to life events (both normative and nonnormative) differ for minority populations?

Gerontology

1. What special educational needs are important for older minority group adults?
2. Given the relationship between low educational attainments of many older minority adults and their lack of familiarity or comfort with formal education, what program models are most appropriate?
3. How can programs such as Elderhostel, aimed specifically at older adults, reach and involve a larger proportion of older minority adults?
4. What special educational problems are faced by older women of color?

Self-directed learning

1. What types of learning projects are most frequently pursued by members of the various cultural groups?
2. From whom is assistance with self-directed learning projects sought?
3. What resources are used for self-directed learning? (print? human? media?)
4. What formats are used? (individual? tutoring? coaching? group?)

Nonformal learning

1. How do minority adults define learning?
2. To what extent does learning play a role in minority voluntary community organizations of various types? (a) self-interest; (b) social communion, (c) civic development; and (d) recreation.
3. What learning and education processes are evident in groups seeking social change?
4. What models describe the processes occurring in group self-directed learning?
5. What can adult educators learn about learning processes, strategies and networks in the minority community that may be transferable to adult education programs?

Learning style

1. Are there predominant learning styles among adults of various cultural backgrounds?
2. How can information about minority adults' preferred learning styles best be incorporated into instructional planning?
3. How do learning outcomes differ for minority adults from those of whites when placed in competitive or cooperative learning environments?

Teaching style

1. What behaviors or characteristics of teachers are most preferred by minority adult learners (for various cultural groups, educational levels)?

2. What dimensions of the classroom environment are perceived as desirable by minority adult learners (for various populations, educational levels)?
3. How can minority adults be assisted in learning with instructors with non-compatible teaching styles?
4. How can instructors best be helped to diversify their teaching styles to accommodate minority adults?

Counseling

1. What are the specific counseling concerns of minority adults in various adult education settings (adult basic education, higher education, vocational training, etc.)?
2. Are many models more effective than others for providing educational brokering services in specific minority communities?
3. How can minority women be encouraged to consider nontraditional careers?
4. What models of counseling are most effective for helping unemployed and underemployed minority adults identify training options that will lead to viable career options rather than short-term employment?

Program planning

1. What differences in program outcomes (satisfaction and learning) are associated with participatory planning among minority adults?
2. What cultural styles do minority adults bring that may initially interfere with participatory planning?
3. How do "felt needs" or particular cultural groups differ from prescribed needs attributed by educators?
4. What characteristics are observed in the program planning and implementation processes used by organizations which effectively serve minority adults?
5. What impact can be verified as a result of participation of minority adults in various forms of adult education, particularly: (a) adult basic and general education, (b) higher education, and (c) job training?

Program administration

1. What forms of outreach/marketing are most successful with specific minority clientele?
2. To what extent is lack of financial aid a barrier to participation for minority adults in various types of adult education programs?
3. What public and private sources of funding have been used to successfully augment minority student tuition for adult education programs?
4. What physical dimensions of the learning environment make the greatest positive or negative impact on program satisfaction for specific cultural groups?
5. How do participation rates differ for similar programs offered in the minority community when compared to programs offered by the same organizations or types of organizations at locations outside the minority community?

Historical research

1. What leadership contributions of individual minority group members to the general field of adult education have been neglected in the mainstream literature of the field?
2. What specific forms of adult education have been developed and/or popularized in minority communities during selected historical periods?
3. Which minority institutions or organizations have served a particular role in promoting adult education for minority group members as well as members of the majority culture?
4. What modifications have been made to various forms of adult education as they were introduced and adopted in minority communities?

Intergroup relations

1. What types of educational programs are most effective in changing awareness levels of adult education staff regarding the particular needs of and approaches useful with minority adults?
2. How can adult education programs effectively provide human relations training for employers? workers? trainers?
3. How can we best facilitate learning in the affective domain for education in intergroup relations?

Methodological issues related to multicultural research

As we begin to frame research questions and formulate appropriate research designs, a number of issues need to be considered. We must be cognizant to the epistemological frameworks underlying our work; we must consider the ethics of our research decisions; and, whether we are generating or testing hypotheses, we must be committed to the use of appropriate methodologies.

The traditional deductive scientific method is associated with a particular way of knowing, making judgments based on the collection and analysis of observable and typically quantifiable data. Yet, other modes of knowing are possible. If we are to truly listen to learners representing multicultural perspectives, we must be open to looking at the world from their world view. We must be aware of potential conflicts between the ways of knowing commonly accepted in our academic tradition and the types of knowledge that may be respected in minority communities. Such conflicts may become especially apparent in doing participatory research. Research which promises only remotely useful knowledge may not be embraced by the communities in question. Closely related is the question of the value of conducting research about a community which stands to benefit little or nothing from the research. We need to ask how the community will potentially be affected by research. If no benefits to potential learners are anticipated, what conditions justify basic research using minority populations?

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Conference Planning Committee I and II

THE THERAPEUTIC LEARNING PROGRAM
A New Computer Technology for Counselors

Jack Mezirow

A breakthrough innovation in counseling technology which promises to significantly extend the professional role of the counselor is psychiatrist Roger Gould's unique Therapeutic Learning Program.

The TLP is an individualized, interactive, computer program designed to reproduce the learning process evoked by best practice of short-term psychotherapy in an educational format of guided independent self-study. It is of particular value in helping clients negotiate difficult life transitions and other existential dilemmas of adulthood in which effective action is impeded by feelings of unwarranted anxiety.

The client interacts directly with the computer. The counselor acts as mentor, supportive guide, resource person and collaborative learner in the best tradition of adult education. The TLP places at the disposal of every counselor the benefits for their clients associated with short-term therapy.

Dr. Gould is a clinical professor at UCLA and widely known author of Transformations: Growth and Change in Adult Life. His epigenetic theory of adult development behind the program is popularly described in his book and is detailed for colleagues in a chapter on "Adulthood" in the forthcoming 5th edition of the Comprehensive Textbook on Psychiatry.

Although used for several years on a contractual basis by hospitals, clinics, health care institutions and, more recently in student counseling centers and in programs of employee assistance, weight reduction and smoking cessation, the TLP has not previously been available to individual counselors for use in their professional practice.

The TLP is a ten-part (5-hour) program which engages the learner in a structured dialogue, following the format of questioning and critical self-reflection of short-term psychotherapy. Responses to initial questions determine subsequently more focused questions. The learner is helped to identify the specific problem he or she chooses to resolve, its symptoms and the pain it evokes, its duration, ways of dealing with the problem which are not working and the learner's willingness to change.

Theoretical Orientation. The learner is led to identify the potential solution to the problem he or she has identified among several possibilities. For most people, the alternative solutions can be systematically examined and analyzed. Dr. Gould calls this the "analysis of regret" since the learner knows that a specific course of action should be taken but is afraid to do so because he or she may regret it.

Regret is analyzed into five assumptions which become belief systems: I may regret taking this action because it might (a) not be the right act, (b) disturb an important relationship in my life, (c) result in my failure and my feeling worse about myself, (d) result in my success and change my life in a way that makes me feel uncomfortable, (5) disturb some inner balance and I may find out something about myself that I don't want to know. The TLP leads the learner in a critically reflective analysis of the assumption which is impeding his or her effectiveness in dealing with a life transition and in the formulation of an action plan to overcome this impediment.

Dr. Gould's orientation is that of a psychoanalytical therapist. As a developmental theorist, he holds that traumatic childhood events can lead to learning specific prohibitions which become fixed or reified: never confront, never succeed, never be less than the best, never be sexual or sensual, never be playful and many others. The inhibitory "rule" fades from consciousness but continues to influence feelings and behavior into adulthood by evoking anxiety when adult actions threaten to violate the childhood prohibition; violating the rule threatens to produce calamitous consequences most feared by the traumatized child, such as complete loss of control, death or violence to a parent, public humiliation or total rejection by society. This assumption is unwarranted by one's adult situation.

Therapeutic learning brings such restrictive psychological assumptions into consciousness and initiates an internal dialogue that differentiates the past and our anxiety symptoms from the realities of the adult present. It then becomes possible for the learner to understand the meaning of these feelings and impulses and of their consequences in the way we see ourselves and react toward others.

Counselor Use. Therapeutic learning is a generic dimension of the adult development process. For the most part, it occurs outside of a treatment context and is facilitated by a friend, teacher or advisor. The TLP opens new possibilities for counselors with or without clinical training.

For counselors working outside of a treatment context, the program serves as an invaluable educational resource to help clients deal constructively with the emotional stress accompanying difficult life transitions like divorce, separation, death of a loved one, change in job status, "burn out," returning to school or the work force, making a career change, children leaving home, moving in or out of a military culture, returning home after being institutionalized, dealing with aged parents, retirement and many others.

There are many excellent educational programs designed to make available information about these transitions. The TLP provides a missing dimension, the means for helping learners deal with unwarranted anxiety, the emotional hang-up most often impeding effective action.

The counselor becomes the facilitator in the therapeutic learning process, helping the learner clarify and encourage thoughtful responses to questions and choices posed by the program, serving as a sympathetic listener, helping the learner understand the developmental theory behind the program, suggesting supplementary information and resources pertaining to specific life transitions, making referrals and leading support groups when several clients are using the program at the same time.

Therapists use the TLP to reduce the time usually devoted to helping a client focus on the problem to be addressed, to provide a common vocabulary with which to communicate and to free the therapist for other work while the patient is engaged with the computer.

Program Evaluation. The TLP has been used with all socio-economic groups and age ranges from 13 to 80. Evaluations have been extremely encouraging. Almost all of a sample of 277 users (out of a universe of 2,000 users) of the TLP within the CIGNA Health Plan reported satisfaction with the program and 80% reported gains in relationships and in their life situations as result of insights acquired. Effects of using the TLP were found to extend to at least six months.

In a longitudinal questionnaire study of CIGNA clients one to three years after using the TLP, nearly 80 percent of the 114 respondents reported lower stress levels as compared to pre-TLP stress levels and satisfaction with the TLP. Ninety-five percent reported improved ability to solve problems with almost two-thirds of the sample agreeing that the TLP was responsible for their perception of enhanced ability to solve problems.

Eleven therapists, who had been involved with the respondents participating in the longitudinal study, rated the TLP appropriate for use with clients who were depressed (91% agreed), anxious (100%) and psychologically unsophisticated (91%). The therapists also rated the TLP appropriate for clients with work-career stress (100%), those coping with medical stress symptoms (82%) and those recovering from substance abuse (100%). The therapists found the TLP inappropriate treatment for character/personality disorders.

Significant gains were also reported in two smaller sample studies of students in "How to Study" classes at the University of Minnesota. In a class of 17, assessed by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and subjective judgments, significant learning gains were found in better self-acceptance, less stress and more control over the presenting problem. A quasi-experimental study conducted by the University Counseling Service compared the TLP to group and individual counseling. Forty-six students were randomly assigned to comparative groups involving either the use of the TLP, group counseling or individual counseling. Gains were measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept, satisfaction with problems and treatment and grade-point average after treatment. The TLP was found to be as effective as group and individual treatments in reducing stress of presenting problems and in satisfying clients and more effective than individual counseling in aiding students to earn higher grades. It was also found to be more efficient than the other approaches in that it freed counselors for other work while clients were interacting with the computer.

Conditions of Use. The TLP requires the use of an IBM PC or compatible with a hard disk. It does not require prior computer experience; directions for its use are simple. The cost to counselors who use the program with their clients is $10 per session or $100 for the five-hour program. Counselors are certified as mentors and are licensed to use the TLP upon completion of an orientation seminar sponsored by the New York Institute for Adult Development. Mentors must contract with Dr. Gould's Interactive Health Systems to use a minimum of five prepaid programs (or 50 sessions) within each six-month period. The counselor may use up to a maximum of 30 programs (or 300 sessions) in this period. More extensive use of the TLP requires an organizational rather than an individual contract with different conditions of use.

For further information about the TLP and the certification seminars, contact Professor Jack Mezirow, Director, Center for Adult Education, Box 153. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY 10027.

DANGER SIGNALS: TROUBLE BREWING FOR GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN ADULT EDUCATION

Burton W. Kreitlow

The following is the result of a case study of one graduate program in trouble. Additional insights come from over thirty years as a professor of Adult Education in a program that from time to time demonstrated a number of the danger signals listed below. Added to this were experiences as a visiting professor in six institutions, short visits to a score of others and attendance at nearly all meetings of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education.

The case under study began with a request to be a visiting professor in the program for a period of one semester following the accidental death of the senior faculty member. It was understood that there were problems in the program but no indication of any crisis. I agreed to spend a semester helping resolve the problem, teach one class and be a resource for other activities as needed.

Within two weeks after my arrival on the scene it was clear that the death of the senior faculty person was but a trigger to move from a number of problems of long standing to an immediate crisis. In simple terms, the program in Adult Education was at risk. My task then was to determine whether or not it should be saved or eliminated. At that point it was a toss-up.

The history of the Department was much like that of other programs developed in the 50s and 60s, a rapid period of growth, ease in attracting good graduate student candidates, ample funds for fellowships and research, joint funding on projects with the state and high visibility among the programs in the department and in the school or college. Following this normal development, and in many cases high program visibility, came a move to isolation. In part, the isolation was due to physical removal of the program from a department home and part from limited integration of funded projects. In addition, the professors became isolated from each other. Graduate students knew that if Professor A was their advisor they could not have Professor B on their committee, etc.

As an outside observer it was essential in three months' time to gather as much data on the problems as was possible, come to grips with alternative solutions, make recommendations and then move them through to adoption by the department home of the adult education program. The case study method, using the key ingredients of Grounded Theory, was chosen as the approach to follow.

Observations in the case study included interviews with all of the faculty in the department, with a selected number of current graduate students, with several former students who had completed their Ph.D. degree in the program during the past five years, with faculty in related departments, with deans and other administrators and with faculty in adult education. Group sessions were held with the department faculty, with graduate students and with faculty in related departments. Near the end of the semester an all-day retreat was held for members of the department. A report of the study was given, suggestions for change were made and next steps considered.

Excerpts from a number of interviews and group meetings were selected for presentation in this paper. They are examples of the kind of raw data examined and appear below.

Professors of Adult Education:

- "Freeze admissions."
- "There has been no sense of community here since 1975. We emphasize process and the rest of the department emphasizes structure."
- "We now have a 'Go after money' mentality at this place. Today, Adult Education should pay its own way. They expect us to get outside funds."

When asked to make a decision on an important item,

- "That goes against the culture of this entire institution." And when the day for the decision arrived, "I have been thinking about it."
- "The retirement system at this institution will haunt our program for five years." (Note: This could be the subject of an entire paper.)

Department Professors (Not Adult Education):

- "There is no programmatic base to the program in Adult Education."
- "This should be the best Adult Education program in the state."
- "HRD and Adult Education have much in common."
- "Adult Education needs an academician who became practical or a 'How to do it' person who became an academician."
- "It is natural for the rest of us to grasp for unfilled lines that are left open for any length of time."
- "Adult Education needs people with social imperatives who will push."

Professors and Administrators in other departments:

- "When the pool of good prospects for graduate study dried up, the two lead professors seemed to quit."
- "This university should be big in Adult Education."
- "To drop Adult Education is not a viable alternative. This university works against interdisciplinary study or degrees."
- "A sound program and tradition was established and somehow it got off the track."

Department Chair and Dean:

- "Action is needed soon." (This on the first contact.) "Adult Education must have academic strength, clearly identified and compelling arguments for funding."
- "There are not enough differences among the adult education courses."
- "The program must be integrated into the rest of the department, not 'free standing.'"
- "Where are the outside dollars coming from?"

- "I want a scholarly, world-class program in five years. The decision to continue the program in Adult Education will depend on strong support from the parent department."
- "I have approved a tenured position for Adult Education to be filled by August 1988."

Students:

- "There was no focus in Adult Education."
- "There are no relationships among the staff."
- "Each staff person did his own thing."
- "The students are well aware that there is no 'vital life force' in the Adult Education faculty."
- "This program has survived on its history for the last 5 to 10 years."
- "We believe that the professors are apathetic."

Recent Ph.D.s:

- "The graduate program is in shambles and was so when I arrived."
- "Program leadership stopped about 1977."
- "Professor A provided no positive contributions since 1982. Professor B did his own thing. Professor C became disruptive behind the scenes. Professor D was out in his own world, interesting for some and not productive for the program. Professor E worked only for individual reward. The off-loaded staff were never a part of the program."
- "No research, writing or funding efforts during the past 10 years for other than selfish reasons."
- "The program should be ended as abruptly as possible without damaging the students in the pipeline."

From the above came heavy evidence of the crisis. In addition, responses included many ideas for solutions that would be realistic in responding to the problems identified. The class taught during this semester demonstrated that the caliber of graduate students compared favorably with those in other institutions. There were meetings with the Graduate Student Club which further demonstrated the student quality and vitality. There were department meetings which assured that the department base for Adult Education had the resources to undergird an excellent program. And the relationship with state government, though not as close as in earlier years, was on sound footing.

From all of the above came a list of danger signals that should have been noted and dealt with at an earlier time. These dangers are likely to appear in any program from time to time. It is essential that they be dealt with before they build to a crisis. When unattended, they could be triggered by any of a number of factors. In this case it was the accidental death of the senior professor.

As we consider each of the danger signals below, it would be well to think of early solutions. As you do so you will note how relatively easy it would be to resolve most of them when they first appear. When allowed to stack up as they did here, it is difficult to know where to begin.

DANGER SIGNALS

1. ISOLATION FROM OTHER FIELDS AND DISCIPLINES
2. LACK OF COMMITMENT TO THE DEPARTMENT WITH WHICH AFFILIATED
3. ACCEPTING NON-ADULT EDUCATORS WHO WERE OFF-LOADED FROM OTHER DEPARTMENTS
4. HOMOGENEOUS AGE RANGE (Especially if nearing retirement)
5. LACK OF INTERNAL COMMUNICATION (On committees within Adult Education, within the department, with other departments in the School of Education)
6. DECLINE IN FUNDED RESEARCH, FELLOWSHIPS, SCHOLARSHIPS
7. LIMITED PUBLICATIONS (Refereed and other)
8. IMAGE DECLINE WITHIN THE SCHOOL OR COLLEGE
9. GRADUATE STUDENT CONCERNS AS TO STATUS OF PROGRAM RELATIVE TO PROGRAMS IN OTHER UNIVERSITIES

What should an adult education faculty do when danger signals first appear?

As the outside consultant and with an assignment that required making recommendations, I did my work and made them. The session today was proposed to identify the solutions needed at the time the problems first appeared, not after they had accumulated to the crisis.

So what would you suggest? We begin with Number 1:

ISOLATION FROM OTHER FIELDS AND DISCIPLINES:

(Then 2 through 9)

(P.S. After this session it became clear that these danger signals were recognized in some programs. Several faculty groups got together on their own and examined their program. This being the case, I strongly urge that others do the same. It may save your Adult Education Graduate Program. They are worth saving and each danger signal should be addressed when it first rears its head.)

Computer Task Force

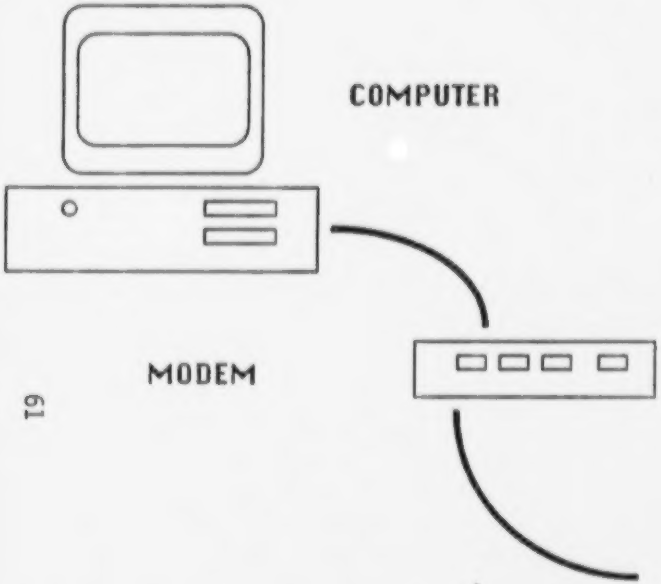
BUILDING A NETWORK OF SCHOLARS IN ADULT EDUCATION HISTORY: THE ELECTRONIC CONNECTION

Nancy F. Gadbow
and
Daniel R. Vertrees

Graphics from their presentation at the annual meeting of ACHE 1988

The Syracuse University Kellogg Project
and
The Syracuse University Adult Education Program

WHAT YOU NEED



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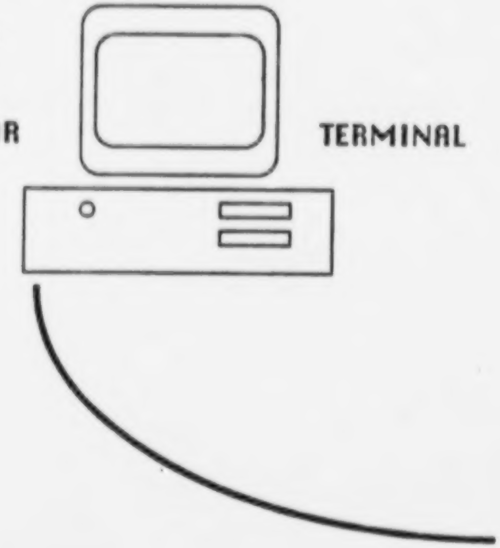

WHAT YOU NEED TO KNOW

- BASIC COMPUTER SKILLS
  - KEYBOARD
  - MICRO COMPUTER FUNCTIONS
    - FORMATTING DISKS
    - LOADING AND USING PROGRAMS
- SOFTWARE SKILLS
  - COMMUNICATION PROGRAM USE
    - CONNECTING
    - FILE TRANSFER OPERATIONS
  - ELECTRONIC MAIL USE ON MAINFRAME

BUILDING A NETWORK OF SCHOLARS IN ADULT EDUCATION HISTORY: THE ELECTRONIC CONNECTION

graphics from presentation by Nancy F. Gadbow and Daniel R. Vertrees at the annual meeting of ACHE 1988.

The Syracuse University Kellogg Project and
The Syracuse University Adult Education Program

SOFTWARE

- COMMUNICATIONS PACKAGE
- USER ID ON INSTITUTIONAL SYSTEM
- ACCESS TO INSTITUTION EMAIL SYSTEM

WHO YOU NEED TO KNOW

- HELP PERSONNEL AT COMPUTING CENTER
- EMAIL OR BITNET HELPER AT INSTITUTION
- FACULTY COMPUTING ASSISTANCE PERSONNEL
- BASIC TRAINING RESOURCES
- LOCAL DEALER OR VENDOR
- LOCAL USER GROUPS

Faculty Development Task Force

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT TASK FORCE - 1988
CPAE MEETING

Rosemary S. Caffarella, Chair
Virginia Commonwealth University

Diane Briscoe, Vice-Chair
University of South Florida

Program

The major program for the Faculty Development Task Force for 1988 CPAE meeting was titled "A Conversation Among Friends: Career Advancement, Enhancement, and Change for Professors of Adult Education." The purpose of the session was to discuss the issues of career advancement, enhancement and change for professors of adult education. This presentation was grounded in the assumption that the way a person is able to grow and develop in the profession is influenced by a number of variables including where they completed their graduate education, their previous work experience, their own career goals and focus, the goals and parameters of the institution and department in which they work, and happenstance. The discussion focused around the needs of professors who are at the ranks of assistant and associate professor. The session opened with an interactive panel presentation followed by an open question-and-answer period with the panel members. Members of the panel included:

> Jerry Apps, University of Wisconsin-Madison; Bradley Courtenay, University of Georgia; Arlene Fingeret, North Carolina State University; Kenneth Paprock, Texas A&M University; John Peters, University of Tennessee; Alan Quigley, Penn State University.

The moderator for the session was Rosemary S. Caffarella, Virginia Commonwealth University.

A summary provided by Diane Briscoe of the major points of the session is given below:

1. Junior faculty and new faculty should expect a great deal of support from senior faculty as they pursue tenure and promotion. Many universities have recognized this need and have implemented strategies to assist. Some of the strategies identified are described below:

   The department chair, during the first semester of employment, appoints a three-person committee (one of whom is selected by the junior faculty member) to meet with the new faculty to discuss University expectations, answer questions, etc. This committee visits the faculty member's classes, helps locate grant sources, helps the faculty member to focus research within department criteria, and becomes the advocate for the new faculty member.

   Senior faculty willingly accept additional responsibilities to allow new faculty time to write.

Workshops are held to acquaint faculty with what is involved with being a successful faculty member on a university campus.

A mentor is formally assigned to acquaint the new faculty member with expectations, to answer questions, and to serve as an advocate for the faculty member. This mentor is assigned to the new faculty member until tenure is achieved.

> Service on selected university committees may also be a method whereby new faculty can become better acquainted with the policies and procedures related to tenure and promotion.

2. When administrations at universities change, the criteria used for tenure and promotion may also change. A mentor can assist a new faculty member in understanding and responding to the changes, but other questions the new faculty member can ask are as follows:

    Who are the key players in the decision-making process (i.e., deans, department chairpersons, university committees, etc.)?

    What criteria are used as a basis for the decisions?

3. The criteria for promotion and tenure seem to be changing. Initially, emphasis seemed to be placed equally on teaching, service, outreach, research, etc. More recently, however, the emphasis on research has gained importance. Most institutions are moving toward these criteria being written so that faculty understand well in advance of tenure and promotion exactly what is expected. This written information may be given in the form of a booklet that is distributed to new faculty at the time of their employment.

    Other questions that may be asked as a means of evaluating a candidate for promotion and tenure are:

        Has this person demonstrated a record of accomplishment important to this university?

        Is this person's potential to continue to grow visible?

        Can this person be replaced?

4. At many universities, it is often difficult for a new faculty member to prioritize assignments because everything appears to be a priority. Additionally, professional priorities and department priorities may not always be the same.

    When the new faculty member has been required to be involved in the day-to-day operations of the department (to the detriment of his/her research and other scholarly endeavors) several suggestions were offered:

        The department chairperson can write a very strong letter in support of the faculty member's departmental activities. This letter should serve almost as a summative statement in support of the new faculty's activities and achievements within the department.

Some faculty senates at universities have gone on record as recommending to the administration that a set of guidelines be followed during the new faculty's first few years at the university while tenure is being sought. These guidelines seek a reduction of committee load, reduction of course load, and more funding for research for untenured and junior faculty members.

5. The role of advocate is especially integral to the field of adult education, particularly because of the applied nature of the field; however, what is advocated, the style in which a faculty member advocates, and the relationship between what is advocated and the mission of the department are three items that must be considered. Since there is not language within most university systems to formally recognize advocacy, the suggestion was offered that these activities could be listed as service. Rearranging and reorganizing advocacy activities under categories of service and research (when appropriate) may also allow for a better review of credentials.

6. Service on state and national associations is also considered important. One benefit of this involvement is that it provides a close relationship to the field. The extent of that involvement and the type of service provided must be carefully considered, however. While some universities value involvement by junior faculty, other institutions consider extensive involvement (i.e., national presidency, etc.) as a liability.

Future Considerations for Task Force Activities

Your major suggestions were made concerning the future activities of the task force. They were as follows:

1. Since the tone of the discussion this year focused on junior faculty and untenured faculty, emphasize next year the enhancement and advancement concerns of all and/or the more senior faculty.

2. Given the growth in enrollment in divisions such as Lifelong Learning and Continuing Education, and the increasing numbers of adjunct faculty who are employed in adult education, develop sessions that would address the faculty development needs of this adjunct population.

3. Since faculty from a variety of disciplines are increasingly involved in adult education (through continuing education, lifelong learning, etc.), explore faculty development activities designed to better address the needs of all faculty, university-wide.

4. A report should be given on the faculty development study being conducted by Rosemary S. Caffarella on professors of adult education.

Two co-chairs of the task force were chosen to carry out these proposed future activities: James Farmer, University of Illinois, and Ed Simpson, Northern Illinois University.

Human Resource Development Task Force

CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND ADULT EDUCATION: A CRITICAL RELATIONSHIP

Fred L. Otte
Georgia State University

Summary of a presentation made for the HRD Task Force at the Preconference of the Commission on Professors, National Adult Education Association Conference, Tulsa, OK, November 1, 1988

A new form of adult education has emerged since about 1970 and now seems to be an accepted part of human resource development. It is the provision of career development assistance to employees.

The term career development is vague and not well defined. Looking at it from three different perspectives is helpful.

From the individual viewpoint, career development is career related human behavior--the way people change as they interact with work roles throughout life. Work roles affect people very early in life; parents and other adults condition them regarding what is appropriate for them. Throughout life we are affected physically, emotionally, and intellectually by work and, in turn, frequently impact on work roles, shaping them to our needs and capabilities. We interact with work roles in a number of ways: developing various degrees of awareness of, choosing among, preparing for, entering, performing in, seeking satisfaction in, and leaving them.

Philosophically, a career development perspective entails a vision of an ideal relationship of individuals and work organizations. That ideal is the achievement of an optimum match of individual and organizational needs. To the extent that it can be achieved, both benefit. Individuals are more creative, productive, and satisfied. Organizations are more responsible to their environment, adaptive, and likely to endure.

Career development practices have emerged in many work organizations--services designed to facilitate that optimum match of needs. From this perspective career development means career counseling and advising for employees, career seminars, career centers, workbooks, tuition reimbursement, job posting, modified human resources information systems, and many other related activities.

Although employee career development systems are still more a matter of lip service than being consistently and widely available, they are sufficiently well established to have produced a number of tangible results. Chief among them probably was the establishment of a career development professional practice area in the America Society for Training and Development (ASTD) in 1979. It has over two thousand members who primarily are providing services to employees, although on a part-time basis in addition to other human resources duties in many instances. At the ASTD national conference each year there is a career development track with about 50 programs being presented. During the 1980's there have been almost one hundred career development articles in the Training and Development Journal alone. The topic of employee career development shows up in many other journals, and several books on the subject are now in print.

Adult education professors can benefit from becoming more aware of developments in this arena. They can pick up ideas to pass on to students. There may also be consulting opportunities.

Many traditional adult education programs can be promoted through this new area of practice, and students will welcome knowledge of it. Continuing education programs aimed at helping employees develop career planning skills are an obvious example, but there are other possibilities. When presented carefully so as not to imply that managers should become counselors, and when designed so that managers do develop sufficient role clarity to be comfortable, another option is a workshop in which managers learn to initiate and conduct career discussions with employees. It is a relatively safe way to demonstrate that they care, and the practice can lead to increased employee commitment. Such discussion may also lead to plans on the part of the employee to pursue adult education as a means of bringing more balance to life.

This option may become much more necessary in the next decade as many of the "baby boomers" find themselves locked into jobs with little chance for promotion because those above them are about the same age. Attending to their needs, reaching them through career development programs in organizations, and providing services through adult education in a variety of settings seems worth considering. It could lead to a vital relationship of career development and adult education.

THE PREPARATION OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPERS: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THREE CASE STUDIES

John A. Niemi, Professor of Adult Education
Northern Illinois University

The purpose of this research was to explore the preparation of HRD personnel in graduate programs at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, the University of Surrey, and the University of Helsinki.

The case study was used to obtain a holistic grasp of the elements of the three graduate programs. Each study examined the program by means of three strategies: observation, interview, and document analysis. A comparative analysis was made in order to establish similarities and differences among the programs.

In 1975, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) organized a program for developing human resources (DHR). Today, through enrollment in the adult education graduate program, DHR students complete a certificate, M.Ed. (without thesis), M.A. (with thesis), or Ed.D. DHR promotes self-directed learning groups wherein students take responsibility for both their own learning and the dynamics of the group. Courses are linked to a summer "voyageur" canoe trip that represents a metaphor for examining the realities confronting an individual in an organization.

Interviews with the director, former directors, faculty, students, and alumni yielded these observations: (a) Study of psychosynthesis and learning styles enable students to gain self-awareness and knowledge about how they learn; (b) Individuals develop their talents through self-direction, but those lacking experience have difficulty choosing courses to obtain expertise; (c) Team-building occurred, especially during the canoe trip; (d) The canoe trip acted as a conceptual lens through which to view tasks, structure, and personal development, which have organizational implications; (e) The group processes provided opportunities for conflict resolution, but some individuals believed that more time was needed for reflection.

The University of Surrey offers staff development (HRD) through an academic diploma, which, when completed at an appropriate level, leads to an M.Sc. degree. Subsequently, students can enroll for a higher research degree (M.Phil./Ph.D.).

A crucial element is Pope and Keen's (1981) personal construct psychology based on Kelly (1955). Short courses and workshops are offered by the Human Potential Research Project.

These observations are based on interviews with the dean, faculty members, and students: (a) "The reflective practitioner" theme is nurtured through personal construct psychology; (b) The content of the short courses and workshops will be offered through credit courses next year; (c) Limited contact exists between the program and business and industry, and, hence, few private sector persons have enrolled.

The University of Helsinki offers the M.S., Licentiate, and Ph.D. degrees. The M.A. program enables HRD students to relate theory to research by linking the work of cognitive psychologists and Soviet "activity" theorists. Engestrom's (1987) work illustrates a blending of these approaches.

These observations are based on interviews with the dean, faculty members, three Lahti Centre administrators, students, and alumni: (a) Engestrom's work gives a theoretical framework for conducting research in the workplace; (b) Students have access to important publications on adult learning, but few HRD publications are available; (c) Students have little contact because the university has no systematic interface with business and industry; (d) A three-month summer practicum exists, but enrollment is low.

A striking feature of the comparative analysis of the three programs was their reliance on the approach taken by Schon (1987) who argued against preparing practitioners as problem-solvers who choose technical ways, because such preparation may apply only to theory, not to practice. Instead, in his view, effective professional education must emphasize "artistry" by heightening the practitioner's capacity for reflection-in-action when a familiar situation undergoes a change.

In the OISE program, such "artistry" is fostered through the canoe trip; at Surrey, the personal construct theory provides a context for such reflection; and, at Helsinki, Engestrom's theory of "learning by expanding" incorporates the same ideas. A second similarity relates to the provision of a practicum at OISE and Helsinki; although, at OISE, such provision is limited because many HRD practitioners have experience. At Helsinki, greater efforts are needed to interface with private and public sectors, so that meaningful internship experiences can be arranged. A third similarity relates to students. At OISE and Surrey, they are usually older, have HRD experience, and enroll with a first degree. At Helsinki, the M.A. is a first degree, and approximately half of the students are younger and have come straight from secondary school. A fourth similarity relates to the product. At Helsinki and Surrey, students must write a thesis, whereas most OISE students pursue the M.Ed. degree without a thesis. Despite some differences, the three programs exhibit a commonality that stresses the individual's ability to relate to reality as a basis for action. The three case studies offer fruitful insights to American educators charged with planning HRD programs.

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Wednesday, November 2, 1988
Concurrent Session IV - HRD Task Force
COMMISSION OF PROFESSORS OF ADULT EDUCATION

HRD POTPOURRI - PERFORMANCE TECHNOLOGY AND ADULT EDUCATION AS PARTNERSHIP

Nancy M. Dixon
The George Washington University
Bart P. Beaudin
Colorado State University

Introduction to Performance Technology (by Bart P. Beaudin)

Adult educators and performance technologists are similar to the extent that they each see their field as an umbrella. Adult education as a field views ABE/GED, continuing education, HRD, etc. as subfields. Whereas performance technologists view what is accomplished by instructional designers and organizational development specialists as major field of activity for performance technology.

Both fields have very few theoretical constructs that can be identified as purely their own. For example, performance technology is derived from the knowledge base in general systems theory, learning psychology, and management science. Whereas most of adult education is rooted in other fields of study. It is proposed that both fields are driven by practices that work. A partnership may be established from this premise.

The title of this presentation is "Performance Technology and Adult Education as a Partnership." A definition of performance technology, which is beginning to be widely accepted by performance technologists, will be introduced and then later modified to include the adult education perspective.

Definition of Performance Technology

The following definition of performance technology has been proposed by the National Society for Performance and Instruction (NSPI).

Performance technology is the systematic process for maximizing human performance by:

* clarifying goals and desired accomplishments,

* detecting and analyzing deficits in goals and accomplishments,

* detecting and analyzing opportunities to improve human performance,

- designing and developing interventions such as training, education, job aids, environmental engineering, evaluation and feedback systems, motivational incentive programs, personnel selection procedures, and effective organizational and individual change strategies.

Performance technology then is a field which includes almost any aspect of attaining high level organizational and individual performance.

Reaction to the Definition (by Nancy M. Dixon)

As I read this definition of Performance Technology, I have two strong reactions to it. The most positive reaction of the two is that the definition is clear and logical. I react positively to the systematic nature of both the definition and the concepts it supports. The idea of having a technology which speaks of an algorithm to improve performance, rather than a heuristic, is attractive. The definition provides a sense of confidence in being able to solve problems and address difficult issues.

The second reaction to the definition is less positive; there are several things which grate at the back of my mind about it. First, it concerns me that the language of the definition depersonalizes. The use of the term "maximizing human performance" sounds analogous to "maximizing machine performance." It is uncomfortable to think of a hypothetical performance technologist observing a group of employees at work with the same dispassion he/she might observe a machine in motion. Nowhere in the definition do I sense that the hopes, dreams, and fears of real people are taken into account.

Secondly, the definition seems devoid of values. To what end is the improvement in human performance? One could imagine the hypothetical performance technologist assisting Darth Vader to improve the performance of his minions and thereby taking as much satisfaction in the improvement as he/she might have when working in the interest of Luke Skywalker and the Force.

Thirdly, the improvement or change in human performance sounds imposed rather than jointly determined by the technologist and the human whose performance is involved. Nowhere in the definition is there a step to check with the human to see if he/she wants his/her performance improved and if so, in what direction.

I recognize, even as I critique the definition, that it is written from the point of view of the organization, not the individual, and in this sense it is perhaps not fair for me to expect to see individuals' concerns embedded within it. The question the definition addresses is: Can the organization get clear on its goals? and can it systematically work out a strategy to reach those goals? But it seems to me that what we have come to understand about organizations in the last few years is that to the extent that organizations unilaterally establish goals without the input and buy-in from employees, and to the extent that they treat employees as unthinking, unfeeling machines, they find themselves unable to compete. The organizations that successfully compete are those that invite the employees into both creating and sharing a vision; that encourage employees to both define and explore solutions to problems; that understand employees not as units to be acted upon but as co-determiners to be acted with. So in a sense, even if the intent of the definition is to represent only one half of an equation, the organization's half, it seems to fall short.

With this in mind I have reworded the definition in a way that attempts to repersonalize it and put back into it a sense of value and bilateral control.

Rewording of the Definition

Performance technology is the process of helping each individual function to the highest level of his/her capability within an organizational setting by:

* clarifying his/her goals and desired accomplishments in relation to the organization's goals,

* critically reflecting on the ways in which individuals are prevented, or prevent themselves, from achieving these goals and accomplishments,

* identifying opportunities for individuals to stretch themselves to reach beyond their present capabilities,

* designing and developing processes and tools such as training, education, self-directed learning materials, cultural awareness and change processes, evaluation and feedback systems, meaningful rewards, matching individual and organizational goals, and effective processes to help individuals and organizations change in the directions they mutually agree upon.

Performance technology then, is a field which includes almost any aspect of helping individuals and organizations accomplish the goals they have mutually agreed upon.

Instructional Improvement Task Force

INNOVATIVE APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM DESIGN: ADULT LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT AND INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR ADULT LEARNERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

Karen E. Watkins
Assistant Professor of Adult Education
and Human Resource Development

Rationale for Curriculum Innovations

The strategies that I will share below are those which have emerged as a logical consequence of designing a curriculum around the ideas that the critical causal competence for our field is interpersonal helping, that meanings are in people, and that professional practice is more artistry than technical rationality.

When our graduate program in human resource development was founded, Oscar Mink and I wrote a conceptual piece on the underlying framework for the program (1981). We incorporated the concept of causal competence which is an underlying competence which causes one to be competent in many different ways. A standard set of such generic competencies would include communication and analytical skills. As we thought about competence in human resource development, we concluded that the underlying skill that enabled one to perform effectively in training and development, career development, organizational development, or facilitating learning for adults in any setting is the ability to work well with people in a helping relationship. As our program has evolved, we have worked with Chris Argyris of Harvard and Donald Schon of MIT to develop a facility with action science, a science of interpersonal helping (Argyris, Putnam, Smith, 1985). There are underlying assumptions in action science which lead to effective interpersonal action and intervention--specifically that meanings are in people and that professional practice is a kind of artistry, a sense-making that is a reflective conversation with a situation, an integration of theory and practice (Schon, 1983, 1987). In attempting to enact a curriculum which would foster these skills, we have used a number of different strategies. I will describe 4 here.

Four Innovations

1. The Integration of Theory and Practice. One way to help future professionals develop the kind of artistry Schon refers to is to help them see that theory and practice are not separate entities. By combining the adult learning course with the instructional strategies course and team-teaching them as a block of courses, we are able to encourage students to experiment with a number of different strategies and to reflect on how these relate to the theories presented. We teach the courses with Organizational Behavior Micro: Group and Interpersonal Skills which means that we have all of our students together for a nine-hour block to launch their graduate work. The Micro course is actually our introduction to action science and in it we teach people to reflect on their practice. In this combination, they can see that each of us has a theory about how adults learn, some possible strategies which follow from that theory, and then we have our actual attempts to produce that

theory in action. Action science is thus a means to encourage critical reflection on the gaps in professional practice between theory and strategies and a means to attempt redesigns and experimentation with alternative actions. There are many unique features about this approach, from the integrated way we teach the topics to the team teaching involved, to the block format. The block format is especially important because it gives us extended blocks of time to do the experiential component of this approach. We teach from 4:00-10:0 p.m. one day a week plus all day Friday and Saturday once a month. In addition, students sign up for an action science lab class worth one credit, with hours arranged within their reflection groups.

2. Action Science Labs. The action science lab is where students actually bring personal cases of problematic incidents in their practice that they want to examine to determine what theories they hold on a tacit level, and to explore ways they can redesign their actions to increase their effectiveness. In Argyris' terms, they look at how they can move from a control to a learning orientation. The one hour lab course is voluntary, credit-no-credit, and open for continuous enrollment. Each semester, students are encouraged to move deeper into the action science process, but they are not required to reenroll or even to move to a different learning level than that which they deem is appropriate to their current skills with action science. The first semester, students work on their own cases as a client or learner. The second semester, they write an episode analysis in which they type up a portion of the discussion of their case and reflect on what they learned about their theories of practice using the action science concepts and attempt to redesign the interaction. The third semester, they begin to look at ways to facilitate other's learning as an action science interventionist and concentrate on reflecting on the reflection in their action science group. For those who decide to stay with this learning, the next phase is to work as a facilitator of an action science group with new students. This then leads to reflection on their interventions based again on typed transcripts of what they actually said and did in intervening with others in a facilitators' group which I facilitate. Individuals who want to take this learning still further may elect to conduct a doctoral study using action science as a research framework or method.

3. Camp Lone Start Retreat. One of the options that we are able to provide for our weekend graduate students (our program consists of two tracks--an evening and a weekend track) is a community-building retreat at a Camp about 75 miles from the University. The retreat setting makes possible extended time frames, time to eat and play together, and a chance to get to know each other's uniqueness in ways that encourage an understanding of the idea that meanings are in people. As individuals share their life stories using Merriam's love and work framework, work together to develop hopes and dreams for their time together, and learn about our hopes for them as those who will carry on the adult education tradition, we establish a new frame of reference. This "frame-breaking" process is extremely helpful in accelerating the integration of people into graduate work in this program in this cohort group.

4. Films. Another way that we attempt to facilitate student's integration of theory and practice in this field is to have them view a series of feature films in the evenings during the first week of the program. The films develop critical themes and dilemmas for this field. We begin with "A Man for All Seasons" and talk about some of the possible costs of acting consistently with our values. We see "Educating Rita" together to look at the relationship

between learner and teacher, learner and significant others, different philosophies of learning, etc. Then we watch "Hamlet" and talk about action anxiety. Finally, we watch "Places in the Heart" as part of our on-going discussion on the creation of a community of inquiry. As we evolve into a community, every one who has ever been a part of the community will be present and affecting the community, even if not physically present. So too will the people who influence each of us be present in our understanding of them.

These are some of the things that we have done to attempt to bring our practice into closer alignment with our theory. We continue to find that this is easier to espouse than to enact. I feel sure that this is only an installment along the way to the story I yet hope to be able to tell.

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EMANCIPATORY RESEARCH ON ADULT CHILDREN OF ALCOHOLICS IN THE WORKPLACE

Karen Watkins and Renee Rogers
Adult Education/Human Resource Development
The University of Texas at Austin

Purpose of Paper

The purpose of this paper is to describe a collaborative research project funded by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health at The University of Texas to study reflective learning about the workplace for a group of adult children of alcoholics (ACOAs) using action science (Argyris, Putnam, & Smith, 1985).

The Problem

There are over 28 million children of alcoholics in the United States, 22 million who have now reached adulthood. In the workplace, these adult children of alcoholics are recently being acknowledged as a group who face special challenges. Awareness that ACOAs experience problems in their jobs is beginning to emerge, particularly among Employee Assistance Program providers. To cite just one study, a preliminary review of 100 randomly selected case records from a variety of Employee Assistance Programs across the nation revealed at least 28 percent of the cases were employed children of alcoholics; the figures rose to 35 percent when other probable indicators of parental alcohol abuse were included (Woodside, 1986). These statistics support a contention that ACOAs are an important workplace population for human resource development professionals to understand and to be able to work with effectively.

Description of the Study

A primary purpose of the Hogg Foundation study was to deepen our understanding of issues adult children of alcoholics face in the workplace. In addition, we wanted to examine how a facilitator trained in action science methods can use these skills to help ACOAs change their understandings and their actions in problematic interpersonal interactions. The research design involved two groups: (a) an "ACOA Reflection Group" which included six participants with Renee Rogers as the interventionist/facilitator and (b) a "Research Reflection Group" with Karen Watkins, Renee Rogers, and Deb Morrow.

The ACOA Reflection Group. The research focus in this group was to explore how individuals interpreted specific workplace experiences and the learning process that was engaged as they critically reflected on problematic workplace interactions. This group included six self-identified ACOAs who met with Renee Rogers once a week for sixteen weeks in the conference room of a hospital where one group member was the Director of Nursing. The participants wrote action science cases of an interpersonal interaction in their work. These cases became the focus of group diagnosis and reflection in order to explore the limits of individuals' self-understandings and to discover self-sabotaging behavior that limited their professional functioning. The group met for approximately two and a half to three hours each week. They tape recorded the sessions and then Renee transcribed each week's group discussion before the subsequent session. For many meetings, participants read the transcripts of the previous week before meeting together.

The Research Reflection Group. The ACOA group facilitator met numerous times during the sixteen weeks of data collection with Karen Watkins and with a consultant (funded by the grant) who had been trained in action science methodology at Harvard University. The research focus for this group was on the facilitator's reflective learning about her facilitation of the group. This group read the transcripts, or at least parts of the transcripts that the facilitator identified as problematic, and reflected together on the way the ACOA group was progressing. This reflection group served two important functions during the data collection phase. First, it provided what Guba (1981) has called "peer debriefing" where the facilitator could test her interpretations and be exposed to questions and alternative interpretations. Secondly, the facilitator was confronted and encouraged in this group to try interventions with participants that she would have avoided and this led to learning episodes in the ACOA group that were different from what would have happened had she been acting alone.

Research Questions

As we studied the transcripts both during data collection and afterward in analyzing the data, we were guided by three research questions:

1. How do individuals interpret the meaning of specific interpersonal interactions in the workplace?
2. Is there evidence that participants experience a change in their understanding which is emancipatory or that can be called learning?
3. What does the facilitator do to engage the dialogue and what effects does her action have on the reflective learning process?

Participant Description

The ACOA group included two males and four females who worked in varying professions: a public school administrator, an OD practitioner at a utility company, two public health nurse practitioners involved in maternal health care, a director of nursing of a large hospital, and an administrative aide. Participants had varying amounts of prior knowledge of action science or experience with therapy for ACOA issues.

The group facilitator invited participants to be involved in this study after several long conversations where she explained the purpose of the research, explored with them what they could gain by participating, and examined possible barriers that would make participation difficult. The criteria for selection was an informed willingness to commit to a lengthy intervention process, strong involvement with their work, and a background of having grown up with at least one alcoholic parent. We identified them as co-researchers because in a very real sense they were. Each agreed to meet in a group to study their own professional practice and explore ways to improve it.

Data Analysis and Threats to Validity

Studying reflective learning processes without creating the means for critical reflectivity about the research process seems an untenable contradiction to us. Therefore, we built reflectivity into the research design by proceeding at all stages in a highly collaborative fashion, constantly testing alternative interpretations and seeking to share meaning. The three members of the Research Reflection Group worked together in the initial review of the transcripts while the ACOA group was on-going. During the sixteen-week data collection phase, we developed maps (such as those described in action science) depicting individuals' theories of action which the facilitator took back to the ACOA group for confirmation and elaboration. In the 11th session, the ACOA group itself developed a "Map of a Nurse's Practice" which summarized the insights attained through the group discussion of one participant's case.

After the data collection phase, we collaborated to analyze the 640 pages of transcript. We developed a chronology of the progression of events in both the ACOA Group and Research Reflection Group which highlights events which were coterminous in each group. Together we developed a "Critical Episodes Chronology of the Facilitator's Practice." To do this, we identified and described each time the facilitator intervened in the group discourse. We defined an intervention as any attempt to influence or change the course of the discussion. The chronology of the progression of the project in both groups and the "Critical Episodes Chronology of the Facilitator's Practice" serve as an audit trail (Guba, 1981) which can be used by an external auditor to examine the researchers' analytical processes.

From these chronologies we classified particular episodes according to two different developmental stage models. The first model, developed by ACOA clinicians (Gravitz & Bowden, 1985), describes six "States of Recovery for ACOAs." Throughout the sixteen weeks, participants displayed varying stages of awareness and acceptance of ACOA issues which is reflected in the data. The group process itself could be described as moving through three of the stages of recovery--core issues, transformation, and integration.

A second developmental stage model comes from action science. Putnam (1988) identified three states of acquisition of action science skills: (a) recognizing one's own Model I theories-in-use; (b) producing Model II behaviors; and (c) producing Model II behaviors under conditions of risk or threat. Particularly for the facilitator's practice, the data evidences this progression of learning.

After we identified these patterns in learning, we developed a series of stories about the reflective learning experiences for individual participants and for the group regarding the lessons about the workplace which emerged. The stories were taken back to the participants for their reactions, as a member check (Guba, 1981) to validate and refine our conclusions.

Preliminary Findings

Two major findings from this research will be reported here to indicate the nature of what we've learned from this study. First, we observed that action science strategies have a different impact on individuals depending on where they are in ACOA recovery. This is not much different from what Argyris

(1968) concluded when he classified people as either growth-oriented self-actualizers or survival-oriented people. After extensive work with T-groups in the 1960s, Argyris concluded that interventionists are educators interested in adding to the skills of clients, not psychotherapists providing analytical insights.

However, doing action science cases often creates conditions where people have and attempt to communicate analytical insights. Doing cases breaks down denial and inevitably brings up therapeutic issues for people who have used denial as a self-protective defensive strategy. What we learned is that when individuals brought up these therapeutic issues and when the group stayed with them long enough to explicitly reflect on the effect of this issue on other participants and on the group dynamic, the group as a whole had a meaningful learning experience. What proved effective in the group reflection was a blend of ACOA therapeutic insights coupled with action science reflection techniques.

When a learner has a therapeutic need, that need will find expression in the dialogue in some way or another. This quite often raises issues for the facilitator as well as the group. We developed the map attached as Figure 1 to depict the kind of learning required for facilitators to become comfortable with the emotional dimension of reflective learning. Throughout most of the sessions, the control orientation depicted in this map describes the actions of the facilitator and the group. In meeting fourteen, the group moved to a more integrative stage when they began to explicitly reflect on emotional states as an integral part of the reflective learning process. An individual went through an entire transcript of the previous week noting what he had been feeling at critical episodes. The facilitator's and the group's ability to "go with" this participant in exploring what had led to his feelings marked a significant turning point in the group's learning.

A second finding is that this method permits a window into the architectural structure of a person's development as an interventionist or facilitator of reflective learning processes. Because the facilitator's beliefs and actions changed considerably over the course of the 16-week intervention, we were able to compare and contrast what happened in the group. In this way, we have been able to identify "low learning conditions" and "high learning conditions" and the beliefs and theories-in-use of the facilitator which produced both. This method therefore enriches our understanding of the skills required for effective facilitation of reflective learning in the workplace.

We have tentatively described those skills. An experimental attitude and risk-taking were consistently important to maintaining the high learning in the group,whether initiated by the facilitator or the participants. The facilitator needed to first model critical reflection and vulnerability and to ask others to help her look at the limits of her practice in order to empower participants to enact these skills. In the early sessions, the facilitator's use of action science strategies and terms intimidated participants as they reported later. What was more effective was seeing her learn from her mistakes. These preliminary findings are not far from Argyris' depiction of Model II skills as owning, openness, and experimentation. Thus the specific skills we identified were less important than the capacity to identify those skills enacted in the moment which was afforded by this research methodology.

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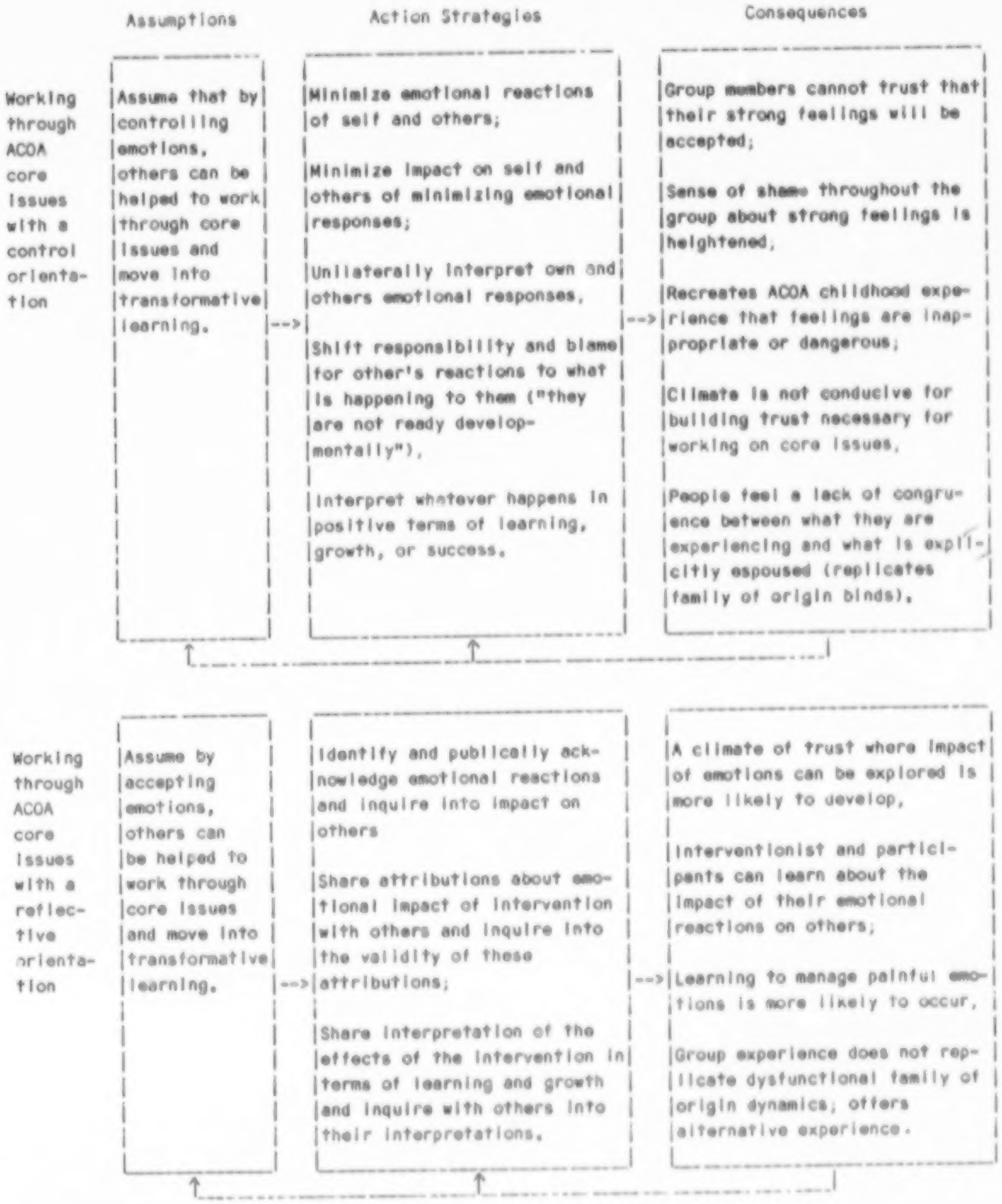
Reflective and Control Orientations in Emotional Learning
Figure 1



	Assumptions		Action Strategies		Consequences
Working through ACOA core issues with a control orientation	Assume that by controlling emotions, others can be helped to work through core issues and move into transformative learning.	-->	Minimize emotional reactions of self and others; Minimize impact on self and others of minimizing emotional responses; Unilaterally interpret own and others emotional responses, Shift responsibility and blame for other's reactions to what is happening to them ("they are not ready developmentally"), Interpret whatever happens in positive terms of learning, growth, or success.	-->	Group members cannot trust that their strong feelings will be accepted; Sense of shame throughout the group about strong feelings is heightened, Recreates ACOA childhood experience that feelings are inappropriate or dangerous; Climate is not conducive for building trust necessary for working on core issues, People feel a lack of congruence between what they are experiencing and what is explicitly espoused (replicates family of origin binds).
Working through ACOA core issues with a reflective orientation	Assume by accepting emotions, others can be helped to work through core issues and move into transformative learning.	-->	Identify and publically acknowledge emotional reactions and inquire into impact on others Share attributions about emotional impact of intervention with others and inquire into the validity of these attributions; Share interpretation of the effects of the intervention in terms of learning and growth and inquire with others into their interpretations.	-->	A climate of trust where impact of emotions can be explored is more likely to develop, Interventionist and participants can learn about the impact of their emotional reactions on others; Learning to manage painful emotions is more likely to occur, Group experience does not replicate dysfunctional family of origin dynamics; offers alternative experience.

Rogers and Watkins, 1988

International Task Force

International Task Force Presentation
Sharing International Research Conferences

Athalinda McIntosh
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Approximately thirty people representing at least five different countries attended and participated in this session.

International conferences, as Harris (1980:3) points out, are one of the main forums for professional discussion of the comparative aspects of adult education. He later stresses the importance of the published reports of such conferences for the comprehensive study on international adult education. However, the reading of conference papers ignores the learning processes which occur during a conference. Also, the proceedings, by definition, do not take into account retrospective interpretations of conference experiences.

Personal experiences and the sharing of same has become increasingly more recognized as a method of implementing new paradigm research as propounded by Reason et al. As I have written on another occasion, experiential material has a special place in a process of expanding cognitive awareness and avoiding the trap of reductionism. Gunther Dohlmen identified the need for adult education researchers who specialize in different ways of perception, cognitive elaboration, learning, valuation, etc. caused by different cultural patterns. It was hoped therefore, that in this session by sharing individual experiences of international research conferences, participants would have the opportunity to develop the qualities identified by Dohlmen. Furthermore, the meeting was intended to identify issues pertinent to the interests and research activities of the members of the International Task Force.

Gerald Normie from the Open University opened the debate with a short paper identifying what he had found as some functions of international research conferences. These included understanding, perspective transformation and identifying issues and methods for practitioners, policymakers, and administrators.

Summary of Major Points

Chuck Oaklief's input using a case study of his visit to the University of Surrey and Alan Chadwaick's visit to Kansas State University focused on the enhancement of organizational change through international experience.

Applying international experience to examine our own cultures, especially in relation to minority groups, was a theme proposed by Paul Ilsley and supported by Victoria Marsick and Peter Jarvis.

There is a responsibility for adult education to animate younger people for the field of study of compatative and international studies. Dusan Sanicene from the University of Belgrade in Yugaslavia added this dimension to the discussion. He drew the attention of the meeting to the fact that sometimes adult educationalists only compare systems. He felt that there is a need to also compare conceptual/philosophical frameworks and thought that visits would be used to promote this practice.

Referring to the Transatlantic Dialogue (TAD) Conference, at the University of Leeds in England, and the experience of the invitational Kellogg Adult-Education Research Group, David Deshler talked about sharing political shifts. He thought that we may need to slant at what is occurring globally. For example, we might consider issues such as access and collaboration on a global scale. Dick Wright reminded the group that such study requires an active interest in politics.

Victoria Marsick spoke about the problem of developing effective and creative dialogues. A word of the International League for Social committment of Adult Education (ILSCAE) was mentioned in this respect.

Jost Reischmann from the University of Tubingen, West Germany, who had recently written a book in English, and Tneg Borries who works extensively with Spanish speaking students stressed the importance of developing a second language as part of faculty development to enhance professional links with foreign colleagues. There was a general agreement that we often resort to the use of English even in countries in which English is not the first language. It would seem that learning a second ond language at least would become an increasing demand for adult educationalists. Also, it was recommended that translators be more readily available at international conferences so that non-English speaking members could participate more fully at the meetings.

In relation to staff development-- Phyllis Cunningham said that experience in overseas work had helped faculty in the internationalizing of the curriculum. Several people mentioned the importance of including an awareness of contexts of that which we report. Greg Bomes recalled an experience in Guatamala, which had shown that the local practitioners had long been using some adult education practices which we in America were considering to be innovative. Marcia Boucouvales said that in writing her book on Greek Adult Education she had had to go back to earlier references to put some current practices into context.

To round up the session Allan Quigley felt that some major considerations raised at international adult education research conferences brought into focus general questions of research. In this respect, not only WHAT and WHO we are researching but also to WHAT END. This would need to include identifying power structures and as Adele Pheme said identifying and sharing common concerns.

Judy Arthur talked about the concept of international "On Our Own Doorsteps." To illustrate this point, Beverly Cassara finished off the session by giving the group an indication of the many international activities in which she is involved.

International Task Force Report

Athalinda McIntosh, Chair of the International Task force for 1988-89

Members of the International Task Force attended the tri-sponsored (AERC, CASNE, SCUTRE) International Conference and participated in an invitational international Kellogg Adult Education Research group at the University of Leeds, England in July 1988. The liaison between the British/North American Exchange (which was initiated by the International Task Force) group has continued, and currently Paul Armstrong in the UK is putting together a newsletter for the group. The West German/North American exchange guided by Beverly Leassara and Gunther Dohlmen was very successful. In May 1988 Athalinda McIntosh and Gerald Normie attended an International Study Seminar in Comparative Research in Adult Education at the Gentro Europeo Dell' Educazione (CEDE) in Frascatie, Italy.

Activities sponsored by the International Task Force meetings

A panel discussion in which Swedish visitors to the Conference mediated by Kenneth Abrahamson, of the Swedish National Board of Education compared educational research traditions in Scandinavia and the USA.

A meeting at which five countries were represented, where participants shared experiences from International Research Conferences and identified how attendance at such conferences had highlighted areas of research and study (reported separately).

The business meeting included a lively debate on the functions of the Task Force. Members also had the opportunity to share ideas for activities as well as to decide future directions (see separate write-up).

Minutes of the International Task Force Business Meeting held at the Westin Hotel, Tulsa, 1 November 1988.

Chair: Athalinda McIntosh, University of Surrey, U.K.

20 members present

1. Apologies for absence were received from Penny Richardson and Gerald Normie

2. Functions of Task Force: Peter Anderson led this discussion. Some major functions of the Task Force identified included:

(i) sharing international experiences of research
(ii) identifying areas for participation in comparative international adult-education research.
(iii) consciousness-raising to aid in the demystification of international research

It was agreed that the group may explore the functional aspects of international/comparative research. One example could be financial. Consideration should be given to gathering information from people who have received money to participate in such research.

3. Programme for the 1989 Commission of Professors Conference

The following were some proposals for the 1989 Conference:

(i) to have a preconference international meeting
(ii) to sponsor a session of the theme of internationalizing the curriculum to include issues of research and practice. The chairperson will explore the possibility of co-sponsoring with the Instructional Improvement Task Force.
(iii) to sponsor a session on Transformative Research as an international dimension
(iv) to sponsor a general session on attracting minority groups to graduate programmes. Paul Ilsley to act as chair.

4. Selection of chair 1990-1992

Jorge Jeria for NIU and Dick Wright form the National College of Education were elected co-chairs for the period 1990-1992

5. Other Business

It was agreed that the chair would put a notice in the CPAE newsletter to invite members to identify issues with which they are/would be concerned, areas of interest for encouraging networking and percieved future plans for the Task Force.

Jost Reischmann invited anyone who is interested in professional exchange visits to the University of Tubingen, West Germany to contact him.

Athalina McIntosh conveyed formally the best wishes and thanks from the SCUTREA Council to those of the group who had publicized, participated in, or otherwise supported the Transatlantic Dialogue conference at the University of Leeds, England 1989.

Athalinda McIntosh
5 November 1988

Reflections on the 1988 Kellogg Researcher's Meeting at Leeds by B. Allen Quigley of Penn State

Having been coaxed by the Moderator, Athalinda McIntosh, to write a few comments on July, 1988 Researcher's Meeting at Leeds, I have taken it as an opportunity to make two observations--having had the chance for reflection since Leeds--and I raise what seems to me to be two critical questions which remain to be resolved.

Gerald Normie began with the classic Alex Charters' description of international as differing from comparative research. This description has been a baseline for some years in our graduate classes at Penn State and, I think, in many adult education classes in America. The Leeds conference brought into sharp focus an entirely different dimension, a dimension central not only to comparative international research, but to research itself. It is not a new question in the field. Griffith and Hall have debated it before as have others. But the central question is rarely a major focus for general transatlantic international meetings, such as the one conducted at Leeds. In my view, the central issue which emerged at Leeds was, "What are we researching, or whom, and for what purpose(s)?" Rather than an assumed neutrality," the dimension which came into focus was that decisions made before, during, and after research projects (during the dissemination stage) are all value-laden decisions. The central question was not one of "network", methodology or descriptive definition--it was one of ideology and purposes which underpin research decisions. The question is not what are we doing, but what should we be doing?

Space was requested by several of the researchers at the Leeds meeting from developing countries to express their understanding of research as conducted through participatory actions. The fact that this request even had to take place underscored the assumptions about neutrality so common to the "research hegemony" of the dominant cultures represented. They proceed to describe projects which hold actual life and death ramifications in certain of their countries. The larger group, I believe, was challenged to look at intent and power questions inherent in the production of knowledge at, for some, an uncomfortably close range. The process of the meeting, and the meeting itself was for many Westerners exasperating and disconcerting. Some felt the meeting got off the rails of acceptable research pursuits and on the tracks of advocacy. The term "Transformative Research" emerged and lay like a gauntlet or some--like a welcome mat for others--in the middle of the meeting. Many left uncertain of what had been resolved, others let feeling the challenged and comparative international description had at last been added to the wider debate. Was the meeting a "success"? Following are two observations and two questions which may help answer this question.

* First, until the group has clearer agreement on what we believe "Transformative" means, in fact, we will be uncertain of our purpose and the rules of this new research network.

* Second, unless the concept of transformative is sufficiently inclusive to embrace diverse methods and topics, it may defeat its own (unclear) purpose by alienating or inadvertently denying the strength of many skilled and committed researchers who otherwise would wish to participate.

* However, I wonder on one hand if we as a field have the maturity to allow "space" for a network which may challenge accepted research norms? On the other hand, if we as a profession have the maturity and insight to know when research is not research--when it is in fact liberatory practice by any other name?

* Finally, I wonder if we who were at Leeds have the committment to stay with a process when the going has already been tough, and when the duly elected Steering Committee needs input and support the most?

Cross says the role of the adult educator is that of "challenger." Research in the comparative/international domain has been challenged on ideological grounds. Will we in North America only learn from a transatlantic flight that we cannot, and will not, engage in a debate up to the moment when it threatens our well-educated paradigms? For me, the Leeds meeting was frustrating and invigorating because it asked of our field--what indeed is our purpose and how do we fulfill that in a context of academic expectations? How can society or professions advance without critical reflection and, indeed, risk taking?

The ultimate question rising from Leeds, I would suggest, is can we hold values and committment together with accepted research approaches, and emerge the stronger for it? Although some would disagree, it seems to me that Lindeman asked the same questions in 1926 in this country. It seems we are still asking for "The Meaning Of Adult Education" sixty-two years later.

Research and Theory Building Task Force

ADULT EDUCATION DISSERTATIONS:
A LOOK AT PRESENT PRACTICES AND PERCEPTIONS

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George Wood
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Introduction

During the 1987 CPAE Research and Theory Building Task Force Meeting in Washington DC, discussion focused upon graduate research and the realities of advising doctoral students in dissertation projects. Subsequent to this meeting, the decision was made to conduct two surveys: one of professors and the other of recent graduates regarding practices and perceptions in adult education dissertation research. The following report was given at the 1988 CPAE conference in Tulsa. Because an additional mailing of questionnaires to recent graduates was planned to increase the response rate, this paper is considered a preliminary report of the findings of the study.

Related Literature

The topic of the dissertation in adult education graduate programs at one time received considerable attention (DeCrow, 1967; DeCrow & Loague, 1970; Grabowski, 1973; Grabowski, 1980; Grabowski & Loague, 1970; Houle & Buskey, 1965; Houle & Ford, 1976). These earlier analyses were made possible in part by two sources. First, Syracuse University's ERIC Clearinghouse of Adult Education retained a collection of adult dissertation abstracts, and second, the University of Chicago maintained a registry of doctoral graduates of adult education programs. Both sources of cataloguing adult education dissertations are no longer in existence which makes accessing specific dissertation studies and researching trends more difficult.

Presently the only known source of registry of abstracts of adult education dissertations is the University Microfilms Dissertation Abstracts in which listings under adult and/or continuing education is by subject matter but not necessarily exclusive to the graduates of adult and continuing education programs. Another source is the admirable volunteer efforts of Dr. William Griffith at the University of British Columbia who maintains lists of graduates and dissertation titles by institutions awarding the doctoral degree.

Perhaps the last comprehensive examination of the dissertation in adult education is the chapter, "Trends in Graduate Research," by Stanley M. Grabowski in Long and Hiemstra's book, Changing Approaches to Studying Adult Education, in 1980. In this chapter, Grabowski notes that since a study by Brunner (1959), the quality of the adult education dissertations had improved. This improvement was evidence by greater rigor in methods, improved theoretical structures, and the increased significance of the problems. In addition, the number of doctorates awarded in the field had grown dramatically from fewer than 10 awarded annually in the 1940s to 157 awarded in 1975. Between

1935 to 1975, 1,713 adult education doctorates had been awarded. The methodologies used in dissertations had changed over the years. The majority of dissertations in the early years were descriptive in nature. The continued development of the computer and advancement of more powerful statistical tests resulted in the enhancement of rigorous quantitative methodologies. At that time, however, there was also a growth in use of participant-observer and futures casting methods, which provide data other than what are considered "hard data" (Grabowski, 1980).

The present study drew upon three sources in the literature: a 1973 paper, "Expressed Attitudes Toward the Doctoral Dissertation Among Adult Educators," presented at an AERC conference by Dr. James Thorson, now professor of Gerontology at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (Thorson, 1973); a 1987 departmental survey at Florida State University conducted by Dr. Roy Ingham, Associate Professor of Adult Education (personal communication, November 15, 1987); and an article, "The Doctoral Dissertation in Speech Communication: An Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences" (Cheatham, 1982). Each of these sources explored attitudes of graduates and/or professors toward the doctoral dissertation process in graduate programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to explore from the viewpoint of both professors and graduates of adult and continuing education programs their experiences with the practices in and perceptions about the dissertation process. The professors were asked to respond to questions regarding: (1) purposes of the dissertation process for graduate students; (2) differences between the Ed.D. and Ph.D. research programs in their institutions if both degrees are offered; (3) personal preferences for style of research; (4) experiences in advising graduate students. The graduates were asked questions regarding: (1) outcomes resulting from having completed the dissertation process; (2) demographic information specific to the doctoral degree; (3) perceptions of major professors personal preferences for style of research; and (4) future recommendations based upon having completed the dissertation. An objective of the study was to compare twelve variables as reported by both professors and graduates.

Instrumentation

Two questionnaires were designed drawing upon the three reported sources. The questionnaires were distributed to faculty members of the Research and Theory Building Task Force for suggested changes. The resulting suggestions of changes were incorporated into the final instruments.

Sample

Professor survey. In April 1988, questionnaires were mailed to the 180 full members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. Of this number, 124 responses (68.8%) were received. Fourteen respondents indicated their graduate programs did not offer the doctoral degree; therefore, the number of eligible respondents was 110.

Graduates survey. Because there is no registry of doctoral graduates of programs of adult and continuing education, a listing of graduates could not be obtained to draw a mathematically determined sample. A dimensional sample of ten graduate programs was selected based upon geographic location and estimated size of the programs. In June 1988, 316 questionnaires were mailed to the doctoral graduates of the ten programs. By August 15, 1988, 178 questionnaires had been returned with five questionnaires unusable. The response rate for this first mailing was 55.6%.

Results of the study

The Professors Study.

The professors were asked to indicate the number of completed doctoral dissertations committees upon which they served during the last four years, and of this number the number on which they served as dissertation project director. The respondents reported:

Committees served: Range 0-60, mean 14.02, standard deviation 10.683
Projects directed: Range 0-19, mean 5.555, standard deviation 4.471

An open-ended question was asked: "What are the main problems you typically encounter in advising students in dissertation projects?" Thirty-five respondents (31.8%) indicated lack of research and inquiry skills, citing such issues as lack of academic preparation, inability to apply research skills taught during program, and selection of methodology separate and after the research problem. Thirty professors (27.2%) responded poor writing skills of students. Defining and/or narrowing the problem was reported by 29 respondents (26.3%). Twenty-two respondents (20%) reported lack of conceptualization skills.

The Graduates Study.

Employment. Of the 173 respondents, 168, or 97.1%, were employed, and 5, or 2.9%, were unemployed. Of those employed, 128 respondents (76.2%) were working in adult and continuing education, and 33 respondents (23.8%) were not. Those employed in adult and continuing education were asked to indicate their primary adult education function using Darkenwald and Merriam's four classifications (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982). The responses were: agency administration: 39 (29.5%); program development: 28 ((21.2%); counseling: 9 (6.8%); instruction: 36 (27.3%); and missing: 41. One interpretation of the large number of missing responses is the confusion and lack of agreement in the field about these four types of adult education functions.

Degree. Of this sample, 108 graduates (62.4%) have the Ed.D. degree, and 65 (37.6%), Ph.D. Of those holding the Ed.D. degree, 21 graduates (19.6%) indicated having experienced career difficulties attributable to the Ed.D. Of note, 6 of this respondents (28.6%) were nurses; these findings may indicate a stage of professionalization in the nursing profession in which the Ph.D. is better known and, therefore, more valued than other doctoral degrees.

The Dissertation Process. The graduates were asked to characterize their experience in doing the dissertation from very positive (5) to very negative (1). With 168 responding, the mean was 3.958 with a standard deviation of .999. In addition, they were asked to indicate whether they strongly agreed (5) to strongly disagreed (1) that their coursework adequately prepared them for the dissertation process. With 172 responding, the mean was 3.831 with a standard deviation of 1.021.

The graduates indicated that the **primary** methodologies used in their dissertation projects were:

Methodology	N	Percent
Survey	80	47.6%
Grounded Theory	25	14.9%
Quasi-experimental	10	6.0%
Historical	10	6.0%
Experimental	10	6.0%
Ethnographic	7	4.2%
Philosophical	3	1.8%
Policy analysis	1	.6%
Other	22	13.1%
	173	100.0%

A question was asked to the graduates: "What was the length of time of your dissertation project from the point at which your committee accepted your proposal until they approved its completed version?" The responses were:

Time	N	Percent
1 to 6 months	13	7.6%
7 to 12 months	46	26.7%
13 to 18 months	40	23.3%
19 months to 2 years	38	22.0%
2 years 1 month to 2 years 6 months	11	6.4%
2 years 7 months to 3 years	14	8.1%
Over 3 years	10	5.8%
	172	100.0%

The graduates were asked to estimate the total financial cost of their dissertation projects excluding tuition, living expenses, and personal expenses. These figures were converted into 1988 dollars using inflation factors supplied by Dr. James Ward, Assistant Professor of Educational Finance, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (personal communication, September 15, 1988). The range of costs for the 161 respondents were: $51.80 to $22,000. The percentiles for costs were: 25%: $948.16; 50%: $1,553.85; and 75%: $3,280.50. In addition, the respondents indicated that the percentage of the dissertation costs paid by other sources were:

Level	N	Percent
No support	108	62.4%
1-24%	22	12.7%
25-74%	6	3.5%
75-99%	10	9.2%
100%	11	6.4%
	163	100.0%

Publication of Dissertation Results. Fifty-seven graduates (33.5%) have published results of their dissertation; 37 graduates (21. 8%) indicated they will never publish their results; 61 graduates (35.9%) plan to submit an article based on their dissertation; and 15 graduates (8.8%) have submitted it, but it has not been accepted for publication. Of those who have published the results of their dissertations, 22 graduates (38.6%) have published in adult and continuing education journals; 16 graduates (28.1%) in professional journals in other fields; 10 graduates (17.5%) in publications other than professional; and 9 graduates (15.8%) in book form.

Comparison of Variables Common to the Professors' and Graduates' Studies.

Twelve study items were common to the instruments of both the professors and graduates. The professors were asked to what extent (great--5 and small --1) the dissertation helps doctoral students do the following: (1) develop job skills, (2) contribute to the knowledge base of the field, (3) learn how to conduct research projects, (4) learn how to interpret research findings, (5) develop critical thinking skills, (6) become informed about literature in a special field, (7) learn how to conduct a review of the literature, and (8) become a scholarly writer. The graduates were asked the same questions from the perspective of what they had experienced in their own dissertation projects.

Four items given to both the professors and graduates examined the major professor's preference for research topics and methodologies. The following statements were presented to both groups for reactions: (1) Graduate students must follow major professor's advice in selection of methodology in the dissertation project. (2) Students must research a topic in the major professor's area of interest and/or expertise for the dissertation project. (3) The major professor favors quantitative rather than qualitative methodologies in dissertation projects. (4) Graduate students must research dissertation topics which contribute to the knowledge base of the field rather than those of local significance only. The responses ranged from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). Results of these variables are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

Discussion

In this preliminary report, there appears to be a disparity on several of the variables between the professors and the graduates. The graduates found the dissertation process more useful in the development of job skills than the professors perceived it should be. For example, on development of job skills, the mean for the professors is lower (3.096) than the graduates (3.564) (see Figure 1).

In addition, the professors believed graduates learn how to conduct research projects to a greater extent (mean: 4.555) than actually experienced by the graduates (mean: 4.076) (see Figure 2). A similar finding was reported for learning how to interpret research findings (professors mean: 4.236; graduates mean: 3.818) (see Figure 3). One factor in explaining the differences in these four variables may be that the graduates had learned these skills in earlier research projects. Some open-ended comments would support this explanation; however, the survey instrument did not contain questions to discern this distinction.

An interesting finding is that professors perceive themselves as having more control over topic selection than the graduates perceive them doing so (professors mean: 2.500; graduates mean: 1.785) (see Figure 4). In addition, the professors believed dissertation should contribute to the knowledge base of the field rather than focus on a topic of local significance only (mean: 4.029) to a greater extent than experienced by the graduates (mean: 3.532) (see Figure 5). However, it should be noted that both means indicate that professors have less control than is thought to be the case by some.

Future Research

The completed report from this study will be available when the second mailing is complete. Results from this "low-budget" research project can be useful in advising and planning dissertation projects. However, additional research is needed to understand this process more completely. Findings from this study can be useful in planning future research in the area of dissertation in adult education graduate programs.

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TABLE 1

Variables	Group	N	Mean	St.Dev.	Median	Mode
Development of Job Skills	Professors	109	3.046	.999	3.000	3.000
	Graduates	163	3.564	1.227	4.000	4.000
Contribution to knowledge base of field	Professors	110	3.436	.883	3.000	3.000
	Graduates	167	3.575	1.044	4.00	4.000
Learn how to conduct research projects	Professors	110	4.555	.568	5.000	5.000
	Graduates	170	4.076	.955	4.000	4.000
Learn to interpret research findings	Professors	110	4.236	.729	4.000	4.000
	Graduates	170	3.818	.934	4.000	4.000
Development of critical thinking skills	Professors	109	3.954	.896	4.000	4.000
	Graduates	171	3.918	1.060	4.000	5.000
Inform about literature in a special field	Professors	109	4.459	.688	5.000	5.000
	Graduates	172	4.174	.861	4.000	4.000
Learn to conduct a literature review	Professors	110	4.227	.786	4.000	4.000
	Graduates	170	3.929	1.144	4.000	5.000
Become a scholarly writer	Professors	109	3.486	.823	4.000	4.000
	Graduates	169	3.598	1.212	4.000	4.000

TABLE 2

Variables	Group	N	Mean	St.Dev.	Median	Mode
Must follow major professor's advice in selecting methodology in dissertation project	Professors	105	2.438	1.126	2.000	3.000
	Graduates	172	2.587	1.346	2.000	1.000
Must research topic in major professor's area of interest for dissertation project	Professors	106	2.500	1.200	2.000	1.000
	Graduates	172	1.785	1.142	1.000	1.000
Major professor favors quantitative (5) over qualitative (1) methodologies in dissertation project	Professors	106	2.179	1.202	2.000	1.000
	Graduates	170	2.012	1.248	2.000	2.000
Selection of topics which will contribute to the knowledge base of field (5) rather than those of local significance only (1)	Professors	107	4.028	1.023	4.000	3.000
	Graduates	173	3.532	1.319	4.000	4.000

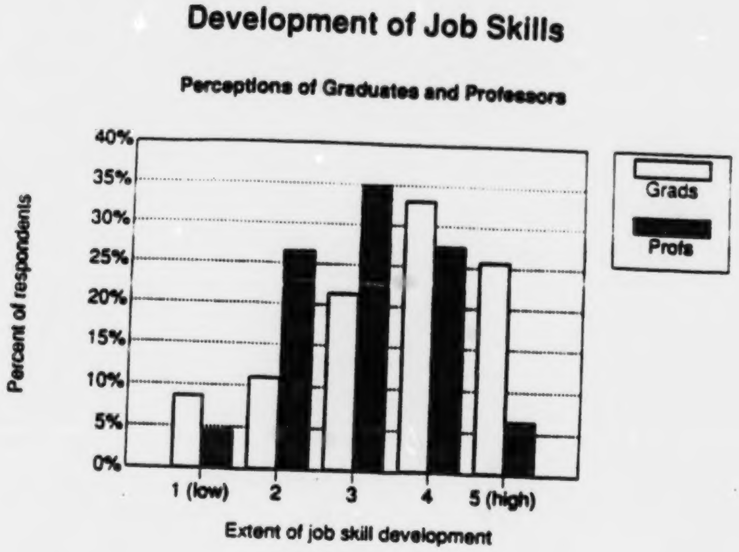

Figure 1

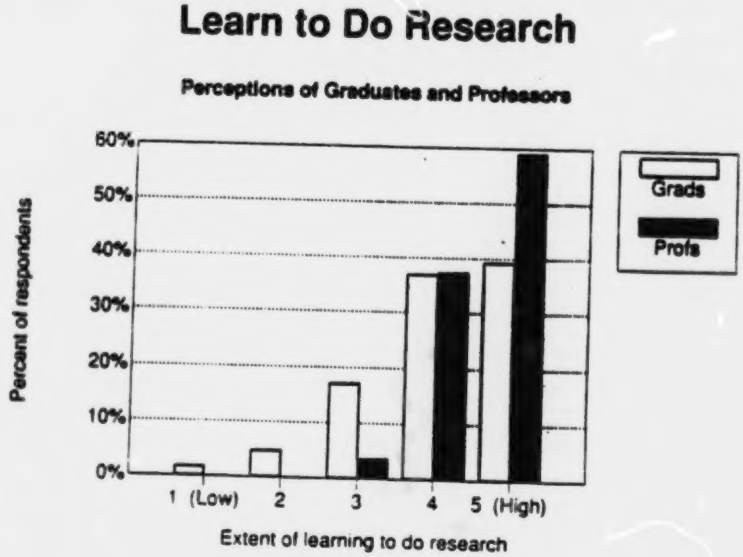

Figure 2

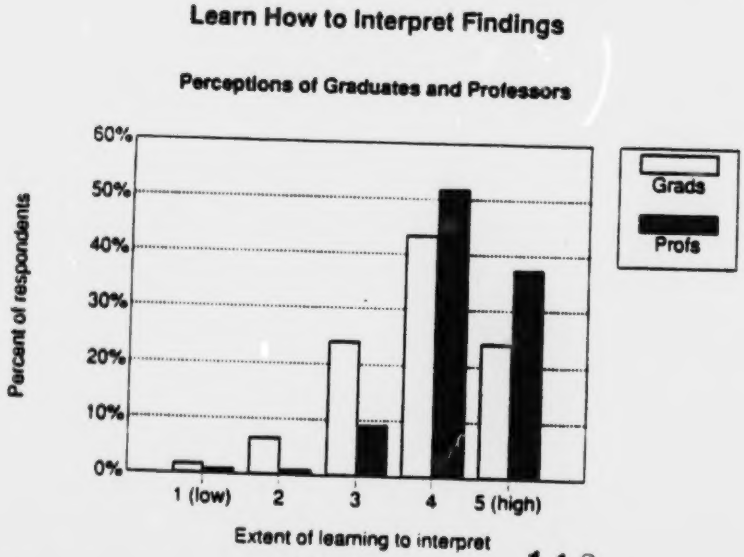

Figure 3

Topic in Professor's Area of Interest

Perception of Graduates and Professors

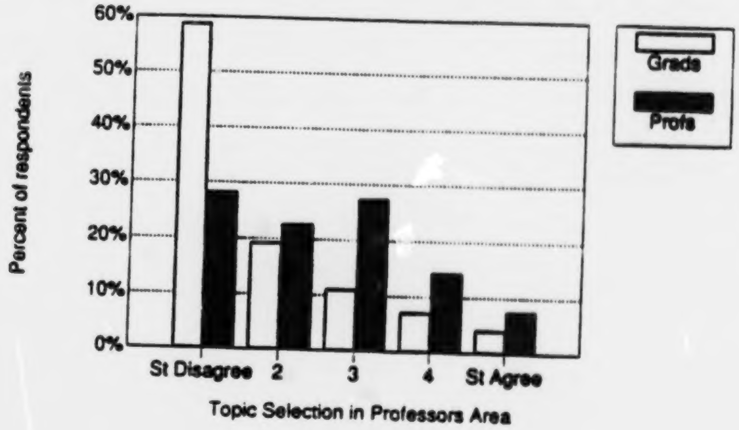

Figure 4

Contribution to Knowledge Base of Field

Perceptions of Graduates and Professors

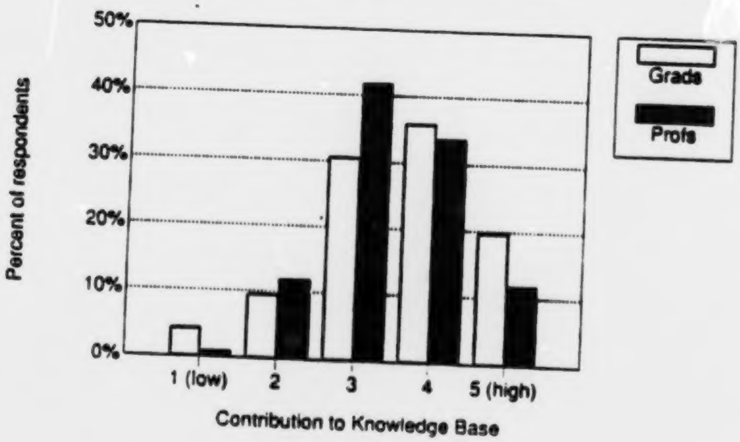

Figure 5

Self-Directed Learning Task Force

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING TASK FORCE

TOPIC: EXPANDING METHODOLOGIES FOR STUDYING SELF-DIRECTION IN LEARNING

Five papers and a panel comprised the Self-Directed Learning Task Force's examination of the methodologies used in studying self-direction in learning.

RESEARCH ON SELF-DIRECTION IN LEARNING: AN EXAMINATION OF THE METHODOLATRY CONTROVERSY

Lucy M. Guglielmino
Florida Atlantic University

We have all heard, read, and known that the concept of self-direction in learning or self-education is by no means a new one; but perhaps it has never been explored in as much detail as it has been in recent years. As recently as 1964, Coolie Verner suggested, "Research into self-education might be a fruitful area of investigation for adult learners" (p. 64); and in the following year Johnstone and Rivera (1965) stated, "Self-instruction is probably the most overlooked avenue of activity in the whole field of adult education" (p. 37).

By 1984 the volume of research in the area was so great that Stephen Brookfield, in an article in the Adult Education Quarterly, asserted, "By almost any measure conceivable, research into self-directed adult learning must constitute the chief growth area in the field of adult education research in the last decade." He then proceeded to describe the extensive research based on Allen Tough's work and on the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale. It was in 1966, actually only one year after Johnstone and Rivera's comment was published, that the intense examination of self-direction in learning began to appear in the literature. In that year Allen Tough published an article in the Adult Education Quarterly entitled "The Assistance Gained by Adult Self-Teachers." In the years following, Tough's interview schedules, questionnaires, and prompt sheets were used in a wide range of studies which provided valuable information on the quantity of adult self-learning, the subject areas studied, and the adults' reasons for engaging in self-directed learning. These studies made possible comparisons of frequency of self-learning among various populations and other important general conclusions, such as the tendency to ascribe less value and importance to self-learning than to learning directed by others.

In 1977, publication of Guglielmino's Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) initiated another group of research efforts (Guglielmino, 1977).

The 58-item Likert-type instrument was designed to assess a learner's readiness to engage in self-directed learning based on a self-report of attitudes, values, beliefs, and skills.

The validation studies ranged from the obvious comparison of SDLRS scores and numbers of learning projects engaged in to correlational studies involving a wide variety of variables, such as creativity, life satisfaction, performance in the workplace, and performance in learning environments requiring greater self-direction than the traditional classroom.

Brookfield noted that the research based on Tough's methodology and on the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale had (a) "...helped to shift the focus of educators' attention onto the phenomenon of adult learning..."; (b) "...challenged the assumption that adult learning can only occur in the presence of a teacher..."; and (c) "...helped to break down the false dichotomy in which institutionally sponsored learning is seen as purposeful and deliberate and learning occurring in non-institutional contexts is held to be serendipitous, ineffective, and wholly experiential" (p. 60). He then presented four major criticisms of the research on self-direction in learning up to that point:

1. The great majority of the subjects used in the studies have been middle-class Americans, thus limiting the ability to generalize the findings for the adult population.

2. The research has relied on "almost exclusive use of quantitative or quasi-quantitative measures in assessing extent of learning [with a] concomitant lack of attention to quality" (p. 59). It is in this section of his article that Brookfield states, "Empirical research into the activities of self-directed learners has been methodolatrous in the extreme," allowing methodology rather than the advancement of knowledge to determine the selection and framing of research topics.

3. The research has emphasized the individual dimensions of self-direction in learning, excluding consideration of the social context in which it occurs.

4. There has been a notable absence of extended discussions of implications for questions of social and political change.

In 1985, Ralph Brockett responded to Stephen Brookfield's "Critical Paradigm." On the first point, the tendency of researchers of self-directed learning to focus on the middle class, he agreed in principle, but cited several other studies which included subjects other than the middle class.

In responding to the accusation of methodolatry, he conceded that quantitative approaches have tended to dominate; but he conceptualized the research a bit differently. Brockett sees self-directed learning research as having followed "at least three distinct streams of inquiry, each of which has made a substantial contribution to our current understanding of the self-directed learning phenomenon" (p. 56). He cites the descriptive research based on the use of Tough's methodology, which has led to a better understanding of the frequency of self-directed learning among adult samples" (p. 56). He then delineates a second stream of research exploring the relationship between self-direction in learning as measured by the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale and a variety of psychosocial variables. Brockett clarifies the purpose of the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale as a self-report of attitudes and skills often associated with readiness to engage in self-directed learning rather than a measure of the quantity of self-directed learning. He also asserts that the Self-Directed-Learning Readiness Scale has helped to move self-directed learning research beyond description toward a greater understanding of the relationship between self-directedness and certain personalogical variables" (p. 56). The third research stream which Brockett describes consists of studies using qualitative methodologies, such as those conducted by Brookfield (1981), Gibbons and others (1980), Leean and Sisco (1981), and Mocker and Spear (1982).

Brockett indicated general agreement with Brookfield's final two points, seconding the need for increased consideration of the social and political dimensions of self-direction in learning.

Continuing the examination of research on self-direction in learning, Rosemary Caffarella and Judith O'Donnell (1987), conducted an extensive review of the literature in which they looked at research on self-direction in learning in five major areas: verification studies, nature of the method, nature of the individual learner, nature of the philosophical position, and policy issues. At the end of the article, the authors point out a number of possible directions for future research. Among their conclusions is a statement that there is a need to expand the study of self-direction in learning to include a broader repertoire of research designs and methodologies.

In the short time since the Caffarella and O'Donnell article was published, a variety of approaches have been applied to research in self-direction in learning. Some are new, some are expansions of methods that had been used earlier. Whether research in self-directed learning could be labeled as methodolatrous or whether it was simply moving through a natural progression common in a developing field, it is certainly true that a wide range of methodologies are now being used in research in self-direction in learning.

Since the quantitative studies of self-direction in learning based on instrumentation and Tough's methodologies have been so numerous and so widely published and presented, we will not focus on those in our sessions today. Instead, I will briefly point out three developments in this area:

1. Studies using the Tough methodology are continuing.

2. Another instrument designed to identify self-directed learners, the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory (OCLI), was developed by Lorys Oddi in 1984; and a number of studies have been done using this instrument.

3. The adult and elementary forms of the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale are being reviewed and shortened based on data accumulated over the years; the adult form is now available in Chinese, Japanese, German, French and Spanish. In addition, an adult basic education (ABE) form has been developed and field tested. It has a lower reading level (3.7) than the adult form, and idioms and difficult sentence structures have been removed to make it more appropriate for use with non-native speakers of English. It has also been translated into Spanish.

I hope that you will view the word "expanding" in our topic for today from two perspectives. First, as a descriptor: the variety of approaches to research in self-direction in learning is expanding, as evidenced by the papers you will hear presented today. Secondly, I ask you to view the word "expanding" as an action agenda. Each of us has an opportunity to participate in the expansion of methodologies in self-directed learning research. Critical assessments such as Brookfield's and Brockett's exchange and Caffarella and O'Donnell's follow-up are healthy and productive. They lead us to examine our progress as a field of research and promote the variety of methodologies which are needed to adequately research the vital area of self-direction in learning.

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WHERE WE ARE AND WHERE WE GO FROM HERE

Roger Hiemstra
Syracuse University

There are both substantive and methodological issues that must be considered in determining "where do we go from here." I will address the substantive side, or what have we begun to learn in applying our research knowledge, and suggest some actual areas for future concern.

1. Teaching/Facilitation Roles:

   How - How do we use and apply individualized teaching approaches? How do we make creative uses of self-directed teaching resources, such as learning contracts?

   When - When can self-directed learning approaches best be used and in what kinds of settings?

   Who - Who needs to understand how to use individualized teaching techniques? Can all teachers use them? What is the learner's responsibility in the teaching and learning process when self-directed approaches are used?

2. Quality Issues:

   Quality control and self-directed learning resources--I believe adult educators should be involved or at least consulted in the development of such resources.

   Quality control for teachers using self-directed approaches needs to be studied and better understood.

   The quality of the learning experience for learners needs to be thought about. This involves helping learners to think critically and even determining when or if facilitators should intervene.

3. Policy Issues:

   I believe lots of work is needed in this area to understand the policy issues related to self-direction and eventually to develop some policies for the field to consider.

4. Motivation - We need to better understand various issues:

   What motivates self-directed learners?
   Why do people engage in self-directed learning?
   What is the role of individuals in assuming responsibility for learning and how do they assume it?

5. Role of Technology:

   There are a series of questions that need to be answered regarding the impact in and use of technology in self-directed learning (the use of in-line electronic conferencing, interactive video, teleconferencing, how to manage information, etc.).

COMMENTS ON "EXPANDING METHODOLOGIES FOR STUDYING SELF-DIRECTION IN LEARNING"

Ralph G. Brockett
University of Tennessee

After hearing the presentations in this session, I am most enthusiastic about the future of research on self-direction. One view of research in this area is to say that we already know quite a bit about self-direction, so it is time to move on to new areas. I disagree. It seems to me that a key to knowledge development in adult education is our ability to build sustained research agendas in key areas. Self-direction has been one of the most extensively studied areas in the field to date and, thus, is clearly an appropriate direction for further investigation.

The approaches addressed by the presenters in this session reaffirm for me the excitement and potential that initially attracted me to work in this area. I am particularly excited about the findings that Sandra McCune has reported. It seems to me that what she has done is to offer a synthesis that pulls together, in an empirical way, what has been done to date. I'm also pleased to hear about Lucy Guglielmino's work with the new "low literacy" form of the SDLRS. I am convinced that a key to future research in self-direction is an ability to refine the methodologies that we use to study the phenomenon as new evidence becomes available and as new questions are raised. It seems to me that the new form of the SDLRS is a fine example of how this can be done.

One last consideration for the future, which I have suggested elsewhere, is that I would like to see us consider exploring self-direction from a longitudinal perspective. This would mean following a single group over a period of time. Clearly, longitudinal research is a major commitment in terms of time and dollars. And there is the concern that it takes many years to be able to draw meaningful conclusions. However, with good planning and a sense of vision, such studies could be developed and carried out in such a way that findings could be analyzed based solely on each cohort and age changes could be measured in subsequent measurements.

Again, I would like to commend the presenters here today for sharing some innovative approaches to studying self-direction. I hope that we, as a field, can continue to search for innovative ways of studying this phenomenon. By doing so, we can continue to greatly expand the knowledge base of self-direction. At the same time, we can reaffirm the commitment of the adult education to excellence in adult learning research.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY IN THE STUDY OF ADULT SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

Huey B. Long

Adult self-directed learning is one of the most active topics of research in adult education. Each year new questions are explored and additional understandings are sought. One objective of this session is to highlight a variety of research methods used by investigators to examine the new and different questions emerging as our knowledge of self-direction in adult learning expands. More specifically, my purpose is to identify some selected biographical and historical studies of adult self-direction in learning, derive implications, and offer some recommendations.

Definitions

Biographical and historical studies may be based on a wide range of data sources: information secured directly from the individual or indirectly obtained after the individual's death. The data may be graphic, oral or written. It may be extensive, intensive, comprehensive or highly selective. Examples include autobiographies, biographies, interviews, letters, memoirs, observations, records and other documents. Life history is defined as "any retrospective account by the individual--*elicited or prompted by another person*" (Watson and Watson-Franke, 1985, p. 2, italics in the original). In contrast, autobiography refers to a person's "*self-initiated*, retrospective account of life, usually, but not always in written form" (p. 2, italics in the original). Biographical research usually focuses on problems such as a person's development and/or on how people give meaning to their lives in particular circumstances. History seeks to given information about people, institutions and their problems in the past.

Selected Studies

Using the above definition of biography and history, a number of studies of adult self-directed learning qualify for consideration. Life history types of studies include *The Inquiring Mind* (Houle, 1988) based on interviews, Allerton's (1975) and Kaple's (1974) use of diaries. Biographical investigations include Gibbons et al.'s (1980) study of experts without formal training, Houle's study *Patterns of Learning* (1984), Long's (1988) study of Sir Wilder Penfield, Long and Ashford's (1976) investigation of self-directed inquiring in colonial America, and Sexton's (1988) analysis of W. H. Kilpatrick's educational philosophy. The above biographical and historical research may be classified as (a) interviews, (b) diary research, (c) analysis of biographies and (d) historical analysis.

Interviews

Houle (1988) and Leann (1981) utilized interviews as a means for collecting biographical information. Houle interviewed 22 subjects not to examine "...the learning habits of all mankind" (p. 4), but to study "...those adults who engage to an outstanding degree in activities which are commonly thought to be educational" (p. 4). As a result of his work he identified some common characteristics such as an interest in reading that have been noted in other studies discussed later.

Leann (1981) conducted her study in rural Vermont and used a triangulated method that included collection of data through survey instruments and in-depth interviews. The interviews required a total of approximately 15 hours for each subject and were conducted over a six-month period. Her 14 subjects included 6 men and 8 women. Transcripts of the interviews were developed and analyzed by qualitative research procedures.

Fifteen specific findings were noted by Leann (1981). A few illustrative conclusions follow:

1. Significant events in a person's life tend to shape the context of one's learning effort.
2. Motivation for present learning efforts are often limited to experience in one's past which stimulated initial interest.
3. The process of visualization of an end state of the learning goal was described by most subjects as a way they began their learning efforts.
4. Women tend to be "seekers" with multiple interests while men tend to be "focusers" improving and maintaining present skills and interest (p. 12).

Implications

The studies contain a variety of implications that are more fully discussed in the complete paper.

Recommendations

Specific recommendations and suggestions are provided in the longer paper.

Diary Method

The use of the diary method for studying some aspect of self-directed learning is illustrated in two published studies (Allerton, 1974 and Kasworm), and one unpublished study (Kaple, 1974). Allerton used the diary method to investigate self-directed learning activities of parish ministers over a six-month period. Based on his analysis of the diaries of eleven ministers he developed the following conclusions:

1. ministers are eager to participate in continuing education.
2. shortages of time and money encourage the use of self-directed learning.

Kaple (1974) compared findings concerning learning projects based on two research procedures. She used the traditional interview procedure developed by Tough (1968) and a diary method where information concerning learning projects over a three-month period was compared. Kaple's work was inconclusive because of difficulties she encountered in obtaining the diaries at the end of the period. Her study is mentioned here for two reasons: (a) first because of its purpose, and (b) because of the difficulty she experienced with adult high school students. Allerton's (1975/76) experiences with a different socioeconomic level was much more successful.

Analysis of Biographies

Maurice Gibbons and his colleagues (1980) indirectly followed the method used by Charlotte Buhler (1935) who developed her concept of life stages based on analysis of published biographies. More directly they based their method on the work of Collins and Moore (1970), Gsikszentmihalyi (1979), Goertzel and Goertzel (1962). Gibbons and his colleagues analyzed the biographies of 20 twentieth-century individuals who they described as being experts without formal training.

In the early stages of their work the research team developed a list of more than 450 self-educated people sufficiently expert in their fields to merit biographies or autobiographies in print. Four different categories were developed: (1) entertainers; (2) inventors, explorers, and creators; (3) people of letters, science and philosophy; and (4) administrators, organizers and builders. Gibbons et al. do not report how they selected the 20 subjects from the more than 450 possible. They do, however, provide some detailed information on other procedures. Gibbons et al. (1980) identify fourteen principles concerning what they label self-education.

In contrast to Gibbons' (1980) investigation Long (1988) emphasized the biography of one individual, Sir Wilder Penfield. Many of the characteristics identified with self-directed learners as noted by Gibbons were also observed in Penfield's life. He was confident about his learning even though he was not impressed with his intellect. His mother was a major influence in his life even into his adult years. He was self-assertive and highly disciplined in his study habits. He also revealed creative insights and industriousness, all characteristics identified by Gibbons.

Kasworm's subjects were university students. The purpose of her research was to investigate the impact of an instructional effort that purposely instructs a group of adult learners in self-directed, contract strategy. Students were required to maintain observational diaries during the semester. Kasworm's results include both good news and bad news for professors who wish to use learning contracts as a strategy for increasing student self-direction in learning. The bad news is that approximately one-fourth of the 19 students who completed the course probably would not choose another self-directed contract learning course. The good news included increases in scores on the Guglielmino Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale from the beginning of the semester to the end.

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

In this paper I have provided a definition of biographical and life history research that includes both elicited as well as unelicited information. The definition as used here is rather broad, but does not appear to violate the use of the concept as employed by many anthropologists and sociologists.

A review of the literature of adult self-directed learning, excluding the voluminous material based on Tough's learning projects interviews, indicated biographical and life history research procedures have had limited use.

In the absence of other longitudinal data, biographical and life history research appear to be particularly promising research procedures to facilitate deeper understanding, theory development and knowledge of developmental issues in self-directed learning.

Some recommended research ideas are as follows:

1. Comparatively study the biographies of highly visible mainstream individuals and individuals identified as deviant or socially marginal for in-depth study. Such study might reveal interesting contextual variables.
2. Examine critical issues such as relationships to parents and others through biographical analysis.
3. Comparatively study individuals of different genders who demonstrate similar life achievements for differences/similarities.
4. Comparatively study individuals who lived in radically different circumstances and/or historical eras to locate potentially time resistant variables.
5. Determine if the applied principle identified by Gibbons and others is an artifact of the biographies studied.
6. Do self-directed learners establish learning enclaves early in life and if so, how are they constituted?

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QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ON SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

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Commission of Professors of Adult Education Meeting
November 1988

The study of self-directed learning has become a major category of research efforts within the field of adult education. The notion of expanding the methodologies for study has been echoed frequently by a number of authors in the field (Long and Associates, 1988; Caffarella and O'Donnell, 1987). Building on Brockett's (1985) observations, the majority of research that has been completed in this area has been descriptive in nature, and grounded in the seminal work of Tough (1971). What is seen less often are studies framed from the quantitative paradigm, with even fewer carried out within the framework of qualitative research. The purpose of this presentation is to provide a summary of the recent studies on self-directed learning which have been framed in this latter paradigm. As this presenter could only locate eight studies which clearly fit the parameters of qualitative research, she chose to include them all in her observations on this strand of research.

In analyzing the material from a methodological framework, four different aspects are reviewed: the basic "thrust" of the research; the subjects; the data collection techniques or sources; and how these studies have added to our knowledge base on self-directed learning. Four of the studies (Houle, 1961; Gibbons, Bailey, Comeau, Schmuck, Seymour, & Wallace 1980; Danis & Tremblay, 1988; Caffarella & O'Donnell, 1988) appear to fit the more traditional notion of what the qualitative paradigm is all about, in that they are exploratory in nature. For example, Gibbons et al. (1980) by analyzing biographies of experts in their fields, sought to discover "commonalities that suggest ways people become effectively self-directed in their learning and their accomplishments" (p. 41), while Caffarella and O'Donnell (1988) explored the quality issue as related to work-place self-directed learning. The remaining four studies (Brookfield, 1981; Leean & Sisco, 1981; Spear & Mocker, 1984; and Spear, 1988) focus more on the expansion of earlier ideas that had been generated by previous research on self-directed learning. Spear and Mocker (1984), for example, examined more closely the process people used in planning their self-directed learning activities, while Spear (1988) conducted a pilot study to test the empirical value of social learning theory as a means for studying both processes and forces in self-directed learning.

The number of subjects for each study, except for the Spear & Mocker (1984) study (n=78) can be characterized as "normal" for studies that are qualitative in nature (n sizes ranged from 10 to 33). What is interesting is that in general they appear more broadly based in terms of the educational and socio-economic background of the subjects than the quantitative studies. For example, in only two of the eight studies (Caffarella & O'Donnell, 1988, and Spear, 1988) are the subjects primarily Caucasian, middle-class and well-educated persons, while three of the researchers (Gibbons et al., 1980; Leean & Sisco, 1981; Spear & Mocker, 1984) purposely chose subjects with high school diploma levels or less. Again, as with the studies in general on self-directed learning, the descriptions of the subjects tend to be incomplete with the noted exception to this being Houle's (1961) work. One possible subject bias of these studies relates to the nature of the learner. Half of authors (Houle, 1961; Gibbons et al., 1981; Brookfield, 1981; and Danis and Tremblay, 1988) consciously chose subjects who were either experts in their respective areas of study and/or adults who were engaged to an outstanding degree in educational activities.

The data collection technique used most often in these studies was the unstructured or semi-structured interview. One team of researchers (Leean & Sisco, 1981) also used standardized tests and observations along with the interview format. The two remaining studies used biographies of experts in their fields (Gibbons et al., 1980) and focus groups (Caffarella & O'Donnell, 1988).

The study that has had the most impact on our knowledge base in self-directed learning is Houle's, The Inquiring Mind (1961). One of the reasons this author believes the impact of this study has been so great is the dual properties of simplicity and elegance that this study embodies, both in terms of the stated purpose and methodology used. This study served as the cornerstone for the seminal work of Tough (1971) which has been the model for the majority of the descriptive research on self-directed learning.

The remaining seven studies, all published after 1980, have also raised some interesting hypotheses, observations and questions as noted below.

- Formulation of fourteen tentative principles of self-education (Gibbons, et al., 1980)

- Confirmed the substantial amount of independent learning by "experts" without accreditation from or recognitions by professional adult educators and the importance of peer learners (fellow enthusiasts) (Brookfield, 1981)

- Self-directed learning was found to be guided by a natural, rational problem-solving mode, and yet recognition that a problem was answered came more through non-rational or altered states of consciousness (Leean & Sisco, 1981)

- Proposed and demonstrated that self-directed learners do not plan their learning process in a linear fashion, but rather this process of learning is more affected by the circumstances in which these learners find themselves (coined the organizing circumstance) (Spear and Mocker, 1984)

- Questioned the premise that self-taught learners use a linear process in planning and carrying out their learning efforts. Rather, learners seem to go about their projects using multiple approaches (Danis and Tremblay, 1988)

- Expanded the notion of the organizing circumstance to include the idea that each self-directed learning project consists of clusters or units of resources and materials, with each cluster having their own determinant and initially being independent of one another. Proposes a cluster/element analysis for more in-depth study of the process of self-directed learning (Spear, 1988)

- Suggested that key indicators of quality self-directed work-related learning activities are related to the perceived control learners have of that learning process, the ease of locating useful resources, the effect that their learning had on "the customers" of their services, and how satisfied they are with their learning efforts (Caffarella and O'Donnell, 1988).

In examining these studies as a group, the key contribution these authors have provided to the knowledge base on self-directed learning is a more in-depth picture of how individual learners go about organizing, doing and evaluating their own learning. In general, these learners do not plan their learning activities in a highly systematic fashion, progressing from learning goals and objectives to action and evaluation. Rather, this process appears to be a mosaic of individual styles of learning which are imbedded in everyday circumstances of life, with the resulting learning process being an interaction between those two forces.

It is suggested that further research into how learners organize, do and judge their self-directed learning activities, based on the findings of these qualitative studies provides a fruitful direction for future research on self-directed learning.

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A META-ANALYTIC STUDY OF ADULT SELF-DIRECTION IN LEARNING

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Stephen F. Austin State University

Gonzalo Garcia, Jr.
Texas A&M University

Through the use of meta-analytic procedures and descriptive statistics, the purpose of this study was to conduct an exploratory analysis and synthesis in an effort to determine the status and nature of adult self-direction in learning research. Comprehensive computer-based and manual searches were completed in an attempt to obtain all published and unpublished quantitative research studies that had been conducted over the past decade. A coding form was developed so that relevant study characteristics and findings of the studies identified could be described and quantified.

Data were collected from 67 studies[1] on adult self-direction in learning and included a total of 388 effect sizes. Data analysis proceeded in two steps: First, descriptive statistics of the data studies were calculated; and second, statistical analysis of the coded data using the effect size as the dependent variable was performed.

The findings indicated that adult self-direction in learning research has focused on educationally advantaged, middle-aged, female subjects. Contributions to the research have been primarily from two disciplines--adult education and nursing. Self-direction in learning has been operationalized in a variety of ways with Guglielmino's Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale being the most popular choice of measurement. In the majority of studies, the principal investigator was female. Most studies were conducted in the North Central States with 1985 being a peak year for number of studies reported. The overall study quality fell in the average range.

Adult self-direction in learning has been investigated in association with various demographic and psychosocial/behavioral variables. The variables found to be associated with adult self-direction in learning were degree of self-directed learning activity (r = .242); positive self-concept (r = .230); educational attainment level (r = .200); self-development (r = .194); autonomy (r = .165); ability to master the environment in work, school, play, or social relations (r = .147); and factors related to longevity on the job (r = -.138). Correlational analysis indicated that relationships between adult self-direction in learning and age, gender, positive attitude about life or learning, dependence, and environmental factors that discourage learning efforts were influenced by variables within the studies.

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[1] A list of the studies can be obtained by writing to Dr. Sandra McCune, Box 13040, Stephen F. Austin State University, Nacogdoches, Texas 75962.

A STUDY OF THE TEACHING STRATEGIES USED TO PROMOTE SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING AMONG GRADUATE STUDENTS IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract: This report presents results of an exploratory study designed to determine if instructors of graduate students in adult education promote/facilitate competency for self-directed learning in their students and the range of teaching strategies used to promote such competence.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most persistent shibboleths in the discipline of adult education is the promotion of self-directed learning. Nearly every introductory text in the field pays homage to the concept as the ideal form of learning, especially for adult students (Brookfield, 1986; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Knowles, 1980; Knox, 1986). Knowles (1975) describes self-directed learning as the process in which individuals assume primary responsibility for planning, conducting, and evaluating their own learning. Having adult students develop greater competence as self-directed learners is a goal advocated by many adult educators (Gross, 1977; Knowles, 1975; Smith, 1982; Tough, 1979).

There have been a number of attempts aimed at identifying basic skills or competencies needed for self-directed learning. Knowles (1975) lists nine such competencies ranging from the ability to decide what knowledge and skills are required for learning, to the ability to evaluate one's own learning. Smith (1982) and Smith and Haverkamp (1977) have developed a process called "learning how to learn" in which self-directed learning competencies can be integrated into the design of formal courses and workshops with the expectation that greater self-direction will result.

Despite the adorations given to self-directed learning in the literature of adult education, most of the research on the phenomena has occurred outside formal educational settings (Brockett, 1983; Brookfield, 1981; Coolican, 1974; Hiemstra, 1976; Leean & Sisco, 1981; Penland, 1979; Peters & Gordon, 1974; Tough, 1979). The results of these studies have been fairly consistent demonstrating the preponderance of learning by most adults to be self-directing.

More recently, researchers have begun to study self-directed learning in formal educational settings, particularly higher education. The focus has been on finding ways to promote and integrate self-directed learning into more formal adult education activities such as courses and workshops. Two distinct approaches--the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) developed by Gugliemino (1977) and the learning contract developed by Knowles (1975)--have been utilized as a means for determining whether competence for self-directed learning can be fostered in formal adult education activities.

Kasworm (1982, 1983) investigated the development of self-directed learning knowledge and skills in her students enrolled in two graduate courses in adult education. Using the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS), she found significant positive gains were made by her students in self-directed learning readiness and skills. She did note, however, that approximately 25% of the students had negative gain scores and would not choose another self-directed learning course.

Caffarella (1982, 1983) and Caffarella and Caffarella (1986) conducted studies using the learning contract as a means of fostering self-directed learning competence among graduate students enrolled in formal adult education course work. Early evidence based on a post only design, limited population consisting of the author's graduate students, and self-reporting data, indicated an increase in students' competence for self-directed learning as a result of the learning contract. However, later work using a much stronger design resulted in the conclusion that the use of learning contracts only had an impact on certain competencies for self-directed learning. These included students' ability: "(a) to translate learning needs into learning objectives in a form that makes possible the accomplishment of these objectives, (b) to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives, and (c) to select effective strategies for using learning resources" (1986, p. 232).

While research focusing on the promotion of self-directed learning in formal learning situations has grown recently, much more is needed. Research that has focused on the use of certain methods or techniques such as self-directed learning readiness scales and learning contracts are both timely and useful. However, one area in particular that has not received much attention, is how instructors of adults promote and facilitate competence for self-directed learning through the use of teaching strategies.

In order to begin dealing with this problem, an exploratory study was conducted to investigate whether instructors of adults promoted and/or facilitated competence for self-directed learning in their students, and if so, what specific teaching strategies were employed to promote/facilitate such competence? The major research questions addressed in the study were: a) Do professors of adult education promote/facilitate competence for self-directed learning in their graduate students? b) if so, what strategies are used to enable students to develop such competence for self-directed learning?

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The population utilized in this study consisted of all full or affiliate members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. This group is comprised of individuals who are teaching mostly graduate courses in the discipline of adult education on a full-time basis. Those who are teaching part-time are eligible for membership as an affiliate member.

The sample consisted of all 216 full or affiliate members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education. A total sampling technique was used because of the interest in getting as broad a response to the research questions as possible. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, no demographic data were collected.

Research Instrument

A self-reporting survey was developed based on the Self Directed Learning Competencies Self Appraisal Form (SDLCSAF) originally constructed by Caffarella and Caffarella (1986). The survey consisted of twelve self-directed learning competency statements; a yes/no indication of whether the respondent promoted each competency in their students; and the strategy(ies) used to promote/facilitate the self-directed learning competency. Additional space was provided for the respondent to indicate other self-directed learning competencies or strategies not included under the survey items. Construct and content validity of the twelve self-directed learning competency statements have been established by previous work of Caffarella (1982, 1983).

Data Collection

The study was conducted over a period of three months. The survey was designed, format piloted with several colleagues trained in research design, and then put into final form. It was mailed to the population via first class mail. A period of five weeks was allowed for the instrument to be returned. After the return date, a reminder letter was sent to the entire population thanking respondents for their help and encouraging those who had not completed the survey to please do so and return as soon as possible. Of the 216 surveys mailed, 67 were returned and 62 deemed usable for data analysis. This accounted for a usable return rate of 29%.

Data Analysis

Due to the exploratory nature of the study, simple descriptive statistics were utilized to determine whether respondents promoted/facilitated competencies for self-directed learning among their students. Simple frequency counts and percentages were reported for these data.

In order to analyze the range of reported teaching strategies, a content analysis procedure was used to ascertain convergent and divergent themes. These themes were then grouped according to each competency statement.

RESULTS

Results of the study are organized according to: (a) yes/no responses to the twelve listed self-directed learning competency statements; and (b) reported teaching strategies used to promote/facilitate the various self-directed learning competency statements.

Yes/No Responses

A cursory review of the response data indicated that instructors of graduate students in adult education do indeed believe they promote/facilitate competence in self-directed learning among their students. While the response rate for each competency statement was not 100% affirmative, all but one item yielded at least 61% or greater affirmation. Such results should not be surprising given the preponderance of adult education literature that stresses the importance of self-directed learning. The more surprising result would have been a strongly negative response to the idea of promoting/facilitating self-directed learning among graduate students in adult education.

Table 1
Percentage of Total Respondents Who Indicated That They Promoted/Facilitated the Given Self-Directed Learning Competency Statement in Their Graduate Students

Self-Directed Learning Competency Statement	n	Yes	No	No Response
1. The ability to diagnose my own learning needs realistically, with help when needed from teachers and peers.	62	87	10	03
2. The ability to translate learning needs into learning objectives in a form that makes possible the accomplishment of those objectives.	62	73	18	09
3. The ability to relate to teachers as facilitators, helpers, or consultants.	62	86	08	06
4. The ability to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives.	62	89	05	06
5. The ability to take the initiative in making use of the resources of my teachers.	62	74	15	11
6. The ability to select effective strategies for using learning resources.	62	74	16	10
7. The ability to execute the learning strategies skillfully and with initiative.	62	65	21	14
8. The ability to gain knowledge and skill from the resources utilized.	62	71	13	16
9. The ability to relate to peers collaboratively and to see them as resources for diagnosing, planning, and completing my learning.	62	90	10	00
10. The ability to deal and cope with personal blocks to learning.	62	61	31	08
11. The ability to renew my motivation for learning when it lags.	62	45	37	18
12. The ability to evaluate my own work and get feedback about my progress.	62	76	11	13

In terms of specific competencies, Table 1 illustrates the overall response rate for each item according to the percentage of agreement, disagreement, or no response. It is noteworthy that four of the competency statements received an agreement score of 86% or greater. In particular, 90% of the respondents indicated that they helped students relate to peers collaboratively and to see them as resources for diagnosing, planning, and completing their learning; 89% indicated that they helped students identify human and material resources appropriate to the different kinds of learning objectives; 87% indicated that they helped students diagnose their own learning needs realistically with help from themselves or peers; and 86% indicated that they helped students relate to themselves as facilitators, helpers, or consultants.

At the same time, three competency statements received an affirmative score of 65% or less from respondents. In particular, 65% indicated that they helped students execute the learning strategies skillfully and with initiative; 61% indicated that they helped students deal and cope with personal blocks to learning; and 45% indicated that they helped students renew their motivation for learning when it lags.

Reported Teaching Strategies

As might be expected, respondents reported a wide range of strategies employed to promote competence for self-directed learning among their students. Table 2 lists selected strategies by each self-directed learning competency statement. A more complete list is available from the author.

Table 2
Selected Teaching Strategies Used by Respondents to Promote Competence for Self-Directed Learning by Competency Statement

Self-Directed Learning Competency Statement	Reported Strategy
1. The ability to diagnose my own learning needs realistically, with help when needed from teachers and peers.	* Have students interview each other * Use a learning contract * Use SDL rating scale developed by Knowles * Self-report inventories
2. The ability to translate needs into learning objectives in a form that makes possible the accomplishment of those objectives.	* Use of learning contract * Advising sessions * Self-designed and self-initiated projects * Use of small and large group process
3. The ability to relate to teachers as facilitators, helpers, or consultants.	* Use of interview schedules * Coaching, empathy, facilitator, openness * Learning contract * Modeling, critical incidents
4. The ability to identify human and material resources appropriate to different kinds of learning objectives.	* Use of learning contracts * Use of learning contracts * Act as resource person * Make personal library available to students

Self-Directed Learning Competency Stmnt (cont)	Reported Strategy
5. The ability to take the initiative in making use of the resources of my teachers.	* Use of interview/discussion sessions * Use of learning contracts * Class facilitator assignments * Open door policy
6. The ability to select effective strategies for using learning resources.	* Modeling, critical questioning * Field experience, interviews * Library assistance, ERIC, and other services * Collaborative learning approach
7. The ability to execute the learning strategies skillfully and with initiative.	* Critiques of contracts, group projects * Practicing/discussing alternative strategies * Practicum, coaching * Peer review
8. The ability to gain knowledge and skill from the resources utilized.	* Sharing resources in class with critique * Encourage critical analysis of materials * Use of learning contracts * Self and group evaluation
9. The ability to relate to peers collaboratively and to see them as resources for diagnosing, planning, and completing my learning.	* Group work * Supportive, open classroom environment * Small group activities * Networking
10. The ability to deal and cope with personal blocks to learning.	* Personal advising sessions * Encourage formative evaluation * Contract and group process * Encourage support groups, networking
11. The ability to renew my motivation for learning when it lags.	* Cheering section * Use McClusky's Power-Load-Margin Theory * Individual conferences * Teach intrinsic motivation strategies
12. The ability to evaluate my own work and get feedback from others about my progress.	* Class reviews of work in progress * Formative evaluation strategies * Advising sessions * Self-evaluation questionnaire

In reviewing the myriad of reported teaching strategies, it is clear that use of learning contracts was mentioned most frequently. In fact, it was mentioned as a strategy for nearly every listed self-directed learning competency. It is also noteworthy that the use of individualizing techniques such as advising, coaching, one-on-one conferences, and counseling were frequently reported as well.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether instructors of adults promoted and/or facilitated competence for self-directed learning in their students, and if so, what specific teaching strategies they employed to promote/facilitate such competence? Specifically, the study was guided by two research questions: (a) Do professors of adult education promote/facilitate competence for self-directed learning in their graduate students? (b) If so, what strategies are used to enable students to develop such competence for self-directed learning?

It can be concluded from this study that most respondents believe that they do promote and/or facilitate competence for self-directed learning in their graduate students. Of the twelve listed competencies that comprised the survey instrument, all but one were reported by a majority of respondents as something they do to encourage self-direction on the part of their students. The one competency statement that did not receive a majority response dealt with renewing a student's motivation for learning when it lags. A potential explanation for this finding may be that the competency is so personal in nature that unless a student brings it up, there may be little a professor can do to deal with the situation. However, being aware that this phenomena may exist in students and contribute to less than successful self-directed learning, should help instructors look for and anticipate such a situation, thereby helping students to more favorably cope with the problem.

It can also be concluded that there appears to be some consistency between adult education theory and practice, at least with those professors of adult education who responded to the survey. This should be greeted favorably by the profession since the literature places such a high premium on the development of self-directed learners; anything less would have been a potential source of embarrassment.

The data also suggest that there is a wide range of teaching strategies in use by respondents to promote/facilitate self-directed learning in their students. Such techniques as learning contracts, self-analysis inventories, role modeling, critical questioning, collaborative learning, and individual advising sessions are a few examples of the many strategies in use by respondents. One caveat should be kept in mind, however. The use of learning contracts was mentioned most frequently as the strategy used to encourage and nurture self-directed learning in students. While this technique has been championed by many adult educators as the ideal tool for encouraging self-direction, recent work by Caffarella and Caffarella (1986) would suggest that such lofty expectations should be tempered somewhat. They concluded that "the use of learning contracts should not be viewed as a major tool for the enhancement of the skills and competencies of self-directed learning" (1986, p. 233).

This exploratory study has revealed evidence to support the contention that professors of adult education are indeed enhancing competencies of self-directed learning in their students through the use of selected teaching strategies. Nevertheless, additional work is needed to verify this finding since it is based on a self-reporting measure and not on actual observations. It is highly possible that respondents may think they are promoting/facilitating competence for self-directed learning, when in reality they are doing something else. Thus, further research is needed that combines self-reporting measures and observational techniques of both instructors and students involved.

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Annual Business Meeting Reports

Chair's Report

Treasurer's Report

Chair's Report

At the annual business meeting Harold Stubblefield, CPAE Chair, reported on several projects and actions taken.

1. The Executive Board of the AAACE approved the editors for two new Commission publications: John Peters and Peter Jarvis are the editors of the new edition of the "the black book," and Harold Stubblefield is the editor of the Landmarks in Adult Education.

2. The results of a survey soliciting member opinion about a possible CPAE publication program were reported. Members who responded believed that the Commission should undertake a publication program of books, monographs, and practitioner oriented materials. They also believed that a new scholarly journal was needed.

3. The Chair had met with the AAACE President and Associate Director to explore how to create a more positive relationship between the Commission and the Association. The AAACE leadership "perceives" that many members of the Commission do not attend the AAACE conference and some belong to the Commission but not AAACE. In this meeting, several potential projects were identified that would make use of the research and writing abilities of the professors. In turn this would address the need that some AAACE members have expressed for assistance in research and that the Association has expressed for a larger publication program and for policy position papers.

4. Rosemary Caffarella had presented the possibility of a dissertation directory utilizing an interaction system. A similar directory had been produced by another association. Such a directory is needed by the Commission. The major obstacle to producing the directory is finances.

Respectfully Submitted,

Harold Stubblefield

TREASURER'S REPORT

Commission of Professors of Adult Education
October 1, 1987 - September 30, 1988

Balance on Hand: October 1, 1987		$3,968.74
Receipts:		
a. 1986-87 Membership Dues	$ 5.00	
b. 1987-88 Membership Dues	950.00	
c. 1987 Conference Fees	1,730.00	
d. Bank Interest	165.91	
	$2,850.91	
Disbursements:		
a. Newsletter Expenses	$ 938.73	
b. Conference Expenses	3,107.41	
c. Bank Fees	10.00	
d. Returned Cheque - Insufficient Funds	5.00	
e. Other Expenses (Photoduplicating, Stationery supplies, etc.)	192.64	
	$4,253.78	
Balance in Savings Account: September 30, 1988		$2,565.87
Balance on Hand: September 30, 1988		$2,565.87

Robert A. Carlson
Secretary/Treasurer, CPAE
September 30, 1988

Annual Census of Doctorates Conferred in Adult Education

1988 Annual Report

1988 ANNUAL REPORT OF DOCTORATES CONFERRED IN ADULT EDUCTION

Compiled by
William S. "Bill" Griffith
The University of British Columbia

Each year the members of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education report to the Commission the doctorates conferred by their institutions during the previous year. In some cases doctorates that had been awarded in previous years and had not been reported in the annual census are identified and these are also reported and added to the listing in the annual meeting Proceedings.

Members of the Commission reported that in 1988 a total of 140 adult education doctorates were conferred by 26 universities. These are included in this alphabetical listing of institutions conferring and individuals receiving these degrees. Only those persons for whom the standard report form was completed are included as it did not seem useful to list the names of individuals without giving the titles of their dissertations. The following numbers of doctorates previously conferred but not previously reported are added to the end of the 1988 listing: 1980 - 5; 1981 - 3; 1982 - 8; 1983 - 14; 1984 - 10; 1985 - 9; 1986 - 10; and 1987 - 19. In total, then, this listing adds 218 doctorates to the total reported in the 1987 listing.

DOCTORATES CONFERRED IN 1988

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

Bergin, Virginia
An Exploration of the Senior Adult Experience in Community College Non-Credit Activities

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DeVries, Robert Charles
A Description of the Nature and Quality of Assigned Non-Structured Mentoring Relationships in Independent Work Sites

Giampa, Franklyn
Cost-Effective Strategies for Implementing a Community Group Home Curriculum Training

James, Warner
The Effectiveness on Adult Learners of Minimalist Design Theory on Learning, Attitude, Anxiety and Time-on-Task for Self-Study Learning Environments

Kammer, Lawrence M.
The Situational Teacher: A Model of Instructional Styles for Clinical Teaching in Professional Education

Lowe, Stephen Douglas
Expanding the Taxonomy of Adult Learner Orientations

Saunders, Ronald James
The Evaluation of a Simulated Hunt as a Method for Teaching Hunter Safety and Responsibility

Showalter, Christina Lee
Dogmatism & Authoritarianism in the Transformation of Intercultural Development Facilitators

Thorburn, Thomas Lyle
A Study of Actual and Preferred Learning Activities and Microcomputer Usage in a Selected Group of Michigan Farmers

Tomlanovich, Jon
Adult Learner Persistence in High School Completion Programs

Turner, Daniel R.
The Special Education Teacher as Consultant: An Analysis of the Role as Perceived by Selected Department of Defense Educators

Ulrich, James F. Jr.
Communication and Management in Intercultural Development Assistance: A Case of Organizational Culture in Kenya

Watts-Pringle, Gwendolyn
A Comparison of Levels of Satisfaction to Selected Demographic Variables for Students at Henry Ford Community College

MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY

Blackwood, Constance
Self-Directedness and Hemisphericity Over the Adult Life Span

Lundgren, Patricia Monahan
Intentional Learning and Change: Diabetes Related Health Changes by Type II Diabetics

NORTH CAROLINA STATE UNIVERSITY

Bachert, Delmar Wayne
The NOLS Experience: Experimental Education in the Wilderness

Barker, Jerry William
Perceived Wellness Needs of University Employees and Variations in Relation to Personal and Employment Characteristics

Boham, Kenneth Arnold
An Analysis of the Career Paths of Mid-Atlantic Community College Presidents

Bohannon, Richard Wallace
Information Accessing Behavior of Physical Therapists

Carelli, Anna
Factors Associated with Adult Education Administrators' Perception of Needed Competencies in Performing in the Six Role Areas Incompassed in their Administrative Position

Dail, William Edward
Identification and Analysis of Personal Productivity Competencies Applicable to First-Level Supervisors in a Federal Military Installation

Dellinger, Sandra
The Effect of a Nonformal Energy Education Program on Behavioral Change in Selected North Carolina Residents

Dunlap, Janis Yvonne
Perspectives of American Human Resource Managers and Trainers in Japanese Owned and Managed Companies in the United States

Eakes, Georgene Gaskill
Grief Resolution in Hospice Nurses: An Exploration of Effective Methods

Elliott, Robert Day, Jr.
The Influence of a Participative Teaching Method on Adult Learners' Attitudes and Self-Concepts

Fiadjoe, Felix Yao Mensa
Socio-Cultural Factors that Farmers with Limited Resources Consider in Making Choices when Faced with Problematic Situations in Their Farming Activities

Findsen, Brian Christopher
The Process of International Graduate Student Adjustment

French, James H.
Thai Perspectives on the Consulting Process: An Inquiry into Organizational Renewal Strategies for Rural Development Agencies

German, John Thomas
Factors Related to Supervisors' Perceptions of Job Performance of Industrial Maintenance Personnel in Northwest North Carolina

Grey, Pamela Uremovich
An Analysis of Level of Self-Sufficiency and Associated Factors for the Career-Related Competencies of Top Administrators in Two-Year Colleges

Hessenflow, Louise Harlow
Factors Associated with North Carolina Legislators' Perception of the North Carolina Community College System

Dansie, Gary Stanley
Attitudes of Correctional Educators Toward Inmate Learners in Ohio's Prisons

Kahrl, Julia Gamble
Maternal Death as Experienced by Middle-Aged Daughters: Implications for Psychoeducational Intervention

ONTARIO INSTITUTE FOR STUDIES IN EDUCATION

Fallis, William Arthur
Job Search Experiences of Graduates Following the Basic Job Readiness Training Program

Hinds, Cora
Relationship of Information Preferences, Family-Functioning, Learned Resourcefulness and Quality of Life Among Patients with Lung Cancer

Kirkwood, Rondalyn Ann
The Development of University Nursing Education in Canada, 1920-1975: Two Case Studies

Lee, Beverly Alice
The Performance Improvement Process: Teachers' Experiences with Intentional Changes

Lee, Lawlor William
Purpose and Meaning in Community Development

Mathies, Ronald John Richard
Fostering a Third World Perspective in A First World Setting: An Assessment of Development Education Activities of Returned Overseas Development Workers

Walker, Gillian Anne
Conceptual Practices and the Political Process: "Family Violence" as Ideology

Williams, Richard Marshall
The Problem of Political Education: Teaching Political Economy to Social Workers

PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY

Pena, Margarita M.
Adult Education and the Local Capabilities in Science and Technology in the Third World: The Colombian Case

RUTGERS UNIVERSITY

Beer, Carole
Sex Differences in the Perceptions of Adult Students of College Classroom Social Environments

Cavaliere, Lorraine
A Case Study of the Self-Directed Learning Processes and Network Patterns Utilized by the Wright Brothers Which Led to Their Invention of Flight

Fauth, Marjorie
Mandatory Continuing Professional Education: A Political Process Approach Study Group: New Jersey Real Estate Brokers

Hayes, Elisabeth
Low Literate Urban Adult Basic Education Students' Perceptions of Deterrents to Participation

Hipple, David
The Dynamics of Organizational Growth and Development in an Association Providing Adult Continuing Professional Education: An Explanatory Case Study of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages: 1974-1984

Tanner, Joyce
Attendance in English as Second Language Programs for Adults in New Jersey: The Effects of Community Program and Student Characteristics

Weischadle, Mary Ann
Effects of Attitudes and Deterrents on Participation in Continuing Education by Real Estate Professionals

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

Chimene, Davice
Adult Perceptions of Age-Related Decline in Learning Ability

Curtis, Lynn R.
Perceptions of Community-Oriented Literacy Providers on the Ideological Nature of Their Practice: An Exploratory Study

Foucar-Szocki, Reginald
Expert Opinion on the Perceived Effectiveness of Training Approaches for Management and Non-Supervisory Employees in the Food Service Industry

Reddout, Martha J.
A Perspective of Clinical Dietetic Practice: Purpose, Standards of Practice and Continuing Education

Sedore, Anne Luzzetta Ziegler
The Relationships Among Self-Directed Learning Readiness, Self-Care Agency and Health Statues in Adults Four to Eight Months After Myocardial Infarction

Six, Jack E.
Measuring the Performance Properties of the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory

Smith, Amory Carson
A Comparison of an Urban and a Rural Public School Adult Education Program in Vermont

TEXAS A & M UNIVERSITY

Boyd, Joshua Rieff Jr.
Communicative Language Teaching for the Adult English as a Second Language Learner: A Teacher's Guide

Carroll, Karolyn Ann
A Study of Personality Characteristics Common to Individuals who Participate in High Risk Leisure Activities

Dunn, Margaret Ellen
A Determination of Juvenile Justice Training Needs of all Texas Police Officers as Perceived by a Significant Constituency

Ford, Marsha S.
The Relationship of Self-Concept and Self-Direction to Life Satisfaction in Elderly Women

Huang, Yueh-Kuey
Language Learning Behaviors and Their Relationship to Achievement and Selected Demographic Variables

Juneau, Bonnie Marie
Factors Which Influence Nursing Student Performance in a Critical Care Setting

Mahoney, James Vincent Jr.
Effectiveness and Efficiency of Individual and Small Group Cooperative Learning in CPR Instruction Using Self-Contained Computer-Driven Videodisc

McCune, Sandra K.
A Meta-Analytic Study of Adult Self-Direction in Learning: A Review of Research from 1977 to Present

Melton, William Thomas
The Development of an Educational Media Selection System for Officer Training in the U.S. Army

Thomas, Margaret Bigham
Writing for Publication: Personal Attributes and Work Environment Factors Associated with Authors who Published in an Adult Education Journal for Practitioners

Tucker, Barbara Allen
The Relationship Between Problem Solving and Learning Strategy in a Registered Nursing Education Program

White, Galvin Gary
Educational Preferences of Retirement Community Residents

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Franklin, Joan Elizabeth
The Collaborative Teaching-Learning Mode: Adult Learning Principles and Managers of Training and Development in Business

Freeland, Deborah Kim
The Collaborative Teaching-Learning Mode: Health Education Professors and Adult Learning Principles

UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS, FAYETTEVILLE

Francis, Sherry
The Impact of Educational Level, Gender, Age and Computer Experience on Computer Attitudes of Adults Enrolled in ABE and GED Programs in the State of Arkansas

Rogers, Jerry D.
The High School Equivalency Graduate and the High School Diploma Graduate: A Comparison of Student Backgrounds and Academic Performance at the University of Arkansas

Wahlman, Randy C.
Status of the Weekend College Concept Among the Members of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities

Woods, Janacy D.
A Study of Selected Principles and Practices of Adult Education by Business and Industry in Arkansas

UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

Berwick, Richard Franklin
The Effect of Task Variation in Teacher-Led Groups on Repair of English as a Foreign Language

Strychar, Irene
Learning Patterns of Pregnant Women

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

Gast, Gerald
Facilitating and Limiting Roles in 4-H Professionals Changing and Adapting to Professional Roles

Hocklander, Neal
Continuing Professional Education Information and Topic Title Preferences of Hospital Administrators

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Enos, Marian Stewart
Learning in a Residential Educational Program in Independent Living Skills for Adults with Epilepsy

Klimoski, Victor James
The Relationship Between Participation in Continuing Professional Education for Clergy, Perceived Role Stress and Role Satisfaction

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI - KANSAS CITY

Bird, Carol
Relationships Among Practice, Experience and Level of Empathy of Professional Nurses

Cackler, Cathleen
The Occurrence of Mentoring in an Ordained Priesthood as it Relates to Performance and Sex

Graeve, Elizabeth
Patterns of Self-Directed Professional Learning of Registered Nurses

Hezel, Linda F.
Freestanding Baccalaureate Curricula for Registered Nurses--A Content Analysis

Lacey, Charlotte
Readiness for Self-Directed Learning Readiness in Women During the Four Stages of Pregnancy

Russell, Jan
Learner Preference for Structure, Self-Directed Learning Readiness and Instructional Methods

Spillman, Wesley
A Study of the Relationship Between Scores on the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory and Continuing Professional Education Activities of Part-Time Clergy

UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA

White, Barbara A.
Selected Instructional Strategies, Learner Outcome and Attitudes of Adult Learners in a Mandatory Education Setting

UNIVERSITY OF MONTREAL

Boisvert, Daniel
Comportements d'aide des apprenant-e-s en tant que membres d'un groupe en teleconference

Dessaint, Marie-Paule
Avantags et inconvenients des rencontrest de grand groupe dans des cours a distance

Humerez-Comtois, Norah
Effet multiplicateur qualitatif de la formation cooperative a la Chaine Cooperative du Saguenay

Sansregret, Marthe
Principes da la reconnaissance des acquis

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT CHAPEL HILL

Fain, Adedline E.
Managerial Role Perceptions of State System CEO's

Luck, Josephine C.
A Study of Community College Recruitment in North Carolina

Williams, Agnes Hope
Decision Making in Foundations: A Case Study

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

Bisher, Jon Alan
The Measurement of the Association Between Aircrew Members' Flying Proficiency and Graduate Study

McAllister, Joe Michael
A Public View of Adult Education

Walker, Jimmy Ward
The Relationship of Continuing Professional Education and Pastoral Tenure Among Southern Baptist Pastors

Walsh, Velma Joy
A Study of the Incidence of Learning Disabilities Among Soldiers in the U.S. Army's Basic Skills Education

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

McKenzie, James Calvin
Occupational Interests in Computers

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN - MADISON

Ahmad, Aminah Binti
Adult Learners' Participation in the Program Decision-Making

Bruch, Daniel
A Study to Identify and Evaluate Selected Variables Related to Donor Giving Patterns: An Analysis With Implications for Adult Education

Bruch, Elizabeth
Networking Patterns of Part-Time Returning Adult Students

Figueira, Eduardo A.
Communication in the Cooperative Extension Service: A Coorientation Approach to Study Rules and Satisfaction of the Community Interaction in the First-Line Leadership Dyads

Freysinger, Valerie
Gender Differences in the Experience of Leisure in Adulthood

Hoyle, Glenn
The Role of Feedback in the Participation of Adults in a Professional Development Distance Education Program

King, Yvonne
Learning How to Become an International Human Rights Advocate

Moskoff, Mary
Perceived Professional Preparedness Among Divorce Mediators: Relationship to Educational Preparation and Conceptual Complexity

Sawamura, Hiroshi
A History of the National Recreation Association of Japan: 1938-1952

Stum, Marlene
Housing Managers & Environments for Elderly Residents: A Situational Analysis and Implications for Human Resource Development Programming

Wiederhoeft, Phyllis
Learning Opportunities for Volunteers: The Relationship of Learning Styles to Participation

Whitaker, Anncelyne
Field Dependence and Field Independence Among Traditional and Non-Traditional Students in an Urban Commuter University

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN - MILWAUKEE

Brown, Janet Van Der Shuys Eminson
A Comparison Between Adult Male Students Who Drop Out and Who Continue in Post-Secondary Education

VIRGINIA COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITY

Beckwith, Ronald
Performance-Based Training vs the Conventional Approach to Personal Account Representative Training at a Major Electric Utility

Pappalardo, John
A Comparison Among Three Types of Socialization Previews and Their Effects on Job Expectations, Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Hankin, Mary Ann
An Historical Study of Adult Education in the American Red Cross from 1940 to 1947

Wilkinson, Mary Ann
The Impact of NLP Rapport Skills Training for RNs on One-on-One Teaching of AIDS Prevention

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DOCOTRATES CONFERRED IN PREVIOUS YEARS NOT PREVIOUSLY REPORTED

1980

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Berg, Sandra
The Effect of Student Participation in a Talented/Gifted Program Upon Selected Parental Attitudes Toward an Urban Public School

Medven, Anton Domagoj
Motives and Problems in Adult Basic Education Participation in Weslaco, Texas

Shugart, Jill
Perceived Performance of Public School Principals for Their Continuing Professional Education

Skinner, William Langdon
An Andragogically Based Program for Ninth Grade Non-Attenders at an Inner City School in an Urban Area

Southern, Sharon Murphy
Attitudes, Beliefs, Intent and Specified Demographic Variables as Assessments of Selected Educators' Reasons for Participation in Graduate Course in Education

1981

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Atwill, Linda Louise Stiff
Characteristics, Interests and Attitudes Toward Learning of Print-Handicapped Adult Listeners of the North Texas Radio Reading Service

Hranitzky, Jeanne Crooks
An Examination of Soi Trigraphs of Teachers Enrolled in Gifted Education at Texas Woman's University

Wilbur, Verna Martin
Language Attitudes of Teachers at Selected Historically Black Colleges as Measured by the Language Attitude Scale

1982

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Bell, Clayton Jr.
Grades and Grade Point Averages as Predictors of Attrition Rates Among Junior College Students

Boling, Betty Preston
A Study of Participants in Project F.L.A.M.E. of the Women's Educational Equity Program

Bridges, Clara Jo
A Comparison of the Perceptions by Teachers and Principals of Principals' Leader Behavior

Burr, Lynda
Comparisons of Structure of Intellectual Divergent Production Measures for Three Groups of Teachers

Mitchell, C. Dan
An Exploratory Analysis of Specific Therapist Skills and Corresponding Changes in Family Behaviors During Marital and Family Therapy Sessions

Peake, Marjorie Snooks
Competency Training Needs of Educators of Learning Disabled Adults

Pipkin, Robbie J.
Stress and Burnout: A Comparison of Levels of Stress of Special Education Elementary Teachers and Secondary Teachers

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Ewart, Carole VonKamp
An Evaluation of a Health Team Development Intervention

1983

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Crenshaw, Donna Carole
Attributions Leading to Career Success and Problems Leading to Career Difficulty as Perceived by Women Managers or Administrators

Downs, Ava Vorosmarty
A Study of Perceptions of Stress of Two Cohorts of Women Students in Urban and Suburban Community Colleges

Goad, Carolyn Kay Hill
Motives and Motivations of Re-Entry Women Students

Lauber, Hilda Zimmerman
A Study to Determine the Relationships Between the Adult Basic Education Reading Teacher's Knowledge of Reading and the Student's Reading Achievement in Texas

Mitchell, Maria Tippins
Coping With Stress: A Comparison of How a Wellness Program Affects Stress Management Among Secondary Teachers

Poulos, William Toney
A Study of the Impact of the Skyline Center on Career Education

Soliz, Linda A.
An Investigation of Motivational Characteristics that Lead to Participation in Continuing Education Programs

Swenson, Sherron Carroll
Psycholinguistic Evidence of Psychological Change Along the Adult Life Span: A Case Study

Tantawutho, Vikorn
The Roles of Adult Vocational Educators in Thailand

Woodrow, George Jr.
Frequency of Use and Importance of Twenty-Five Administrative Thinking Strategies

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

Griffith, Arvilla Rogers
Preretirement Planning Programs for Teachers in Texas Public Schools

Pinder, Margaret Marie
The Impact of a Short-Term Training Program on Learned Helplessness Among Staff and Residents of Nursing Homes

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Gravely, Archer R.
The Professionalization of Continuing Education: An Application of Larson's Model

Pleasant, Gregory
Factors Influencing Functional Literacy Performance Among Adult Basic Education Students

1984

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Gilliland, Brenda J.
Variations in Perceptions of Life Satisfactions, Conceptions of Marriage Roles and Self-Perceived Success in Marriage Among Three Mature Age Groups

Hall, Donna Richardson
A Comparison of Priority and Frequency of Adult Thinking Strategies Used by Speech Teachers Coordinating Speech Activities and by School Administrators

Hall, Judith Lynn Elliott
A Comparison of Levels of Burnout, Stress and Manifest Anxiety in Full-Time Teachers Who are Doctoral Candidates and Full-Time Teachers not Enrolled in Higher Education

Keefer, Roxanne Koesling
The Relationship of Self-Esteem to the Career Attitude Maturity Levels of Disadvantaged Postsecondary Students

Poulos, Margaret Mary
Perceived Concerns of Public School Teachers and Administrators Toward Innovation with Implications for Their Continuing Professional Education

Rice, Marilyn Anne
Cognitive Maps Related to Telecourses in Community Colleges

Runnels, Jane Haynes
The Relation of the Elementary School Principal to the Improvement of Reading

Tinius, Kathryn Stepp
An Analysis of Motivational and Sociodemographic Factors Affecting Educational Participation: A Study of Credit and Non-Credit Students at Eastfield Community College

Weiss, Ann Rousseau
Effects of Short-Term Continuing Professional Education on Teachers' Attitudes and Commitments to Higher Level Thinking in Mathematics Problem Solving

Whitley, Annie Hornsby
The Effects of a Parent-Education Program on Attitudes of Parents of Disciplinary Probation Students

1985

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Hebbard, Don
Lecturer Communication Characteristics in Adult Training

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

Cinclair, Carol
The Effects of Participation in a Buddy System on the Self-Concept, Academic Achievement, Attrition Rate and Congruence Level of Community College Developmental Studies Students

Grigsby, Lindle
An Analysis of the Continuing Education/Community Service Programs in the Public Junior/Community Colleges of the State of Texas

Revel, Layton
The Impact of a Part 48 Training Program on the Health and Safety Knowledge Levels of Newly Employed Inexperienced Miners

Simmons, Margaret Anne Harris
The Association Between Selected Health Characteristics and Participation in Learning Projects by Retired Teachers

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Craig, Beverly Fussell
Climate and Research Productivity of Collegiate Nursing Faculty: Implications for Educational and Administrative Interventions

Dennis, Cogswell
Assessing the Training and Staff Development Needs of Mental Health/Mental Retardation Professionals: A Multi-Method Framework

Nichols, Billie Edwards
Factors Related to the Implementation of Developmental Activities Following Participation in a Diagnostic Assessment Centre for Middle Managers

Reid, Robert D.
An Assessment of the Relationship Between Unit Managers' Attitudes and the Employment Status of Older Workers in the Food Service Industry

1986

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Chirabandhu, Suchawadee
Competencies of Adult Teachers in Thailand

Evans, Michael Duane
Intentional Change of Midlife Women

Moore, Evangelina
The Attitudes and Behavioral Intentions of Texas Attorneys Toward Continuing Legal Education

Stapp, Betty
An Investigation of Midlife Career Change and Midlife Transition

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

Garza, Christine Softchick
Nursing Students and Inferential Sets

Hancock, Donald Hugh
Ideas About Adult Learning in Fifth and Fourth Century BC Athens

Palmer, Margaret Rose
An Educational Design for Consciousness Raising in Social Justice Education for the Sisters of Charity at the Incarnate Word: Paulo Freire's Methodology Applied to the Congregational Ministry for and with the Economically Poor

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Brown, Wilbert
Self-Initiated Learning Projects of the Inmates of District of Columbia Department of Corrections

Hutchinson, Frank DuBois Jr.
The Development and Empirical Test of a Scale to Measure Organizational Values for Corporate Excellence

Wolford, Anne K.
An Analysis of the Effects of Race and Gender in Scoring Extension Agent Performance Standards

1987

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

Busby, Mary
Differences in Career Aspiration, Awareness and Vocational Self-Esteem Among Learning Disabled, Remedial and Non-Handicapped Adult Students

Isaacson, Elissa
Cognitive Learning Processes of Successful Adult Learners

Memmott, James
Relationships of Performance Appraisal and Measures of Professional Learning Among Hospital Administrators

Quigley, B. Allan
The Resisters: An Analysis of Non-Participation in Adult Basic Education

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

Airhart, Poppy
Prediction and Follow-up of Community College Dropouts and Persisters

Chombo, Ignatius
A Study of Motives for Participation in Professional Development by College Professors

McAfee, Martha
Preferred Learning, Training and Leadership Styles of Educational Managers

Soffells, Rosie M.
The Professionalization of Education, Administrators: Attitudes Toward Elements Which Characterize Professionals and the Professional Process

Van Tour, Darlene
Career Maturity and Characteristics of Returning Women Students

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS

Dressler, Dennis W.
In the Service of Adults: A.A. Liveright, An American Adult Educator

Jiearatrakul, Tamrongsin
Knowledge and Skills for the Adult Educator in Thailand

McCormick, Sarajane Y.
Nurse Educator and Nursing Student Learning Style March and Its Effect on the Problem Solving Ability of the Nursing Student

UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING

Inkster, Robert
The Philosophy of Michael Polanyi: Implications for Adult Education

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Anholt, Raymond E.
The Effectiveness of Relaxation Training in Reducing the Anxiety Level of Vocational Rehabilitation Clients Immediately Prior to an Audio-Videotaped Simulation of a Job Interview.

Asmuth, Lynne Yvonne
The Experience of Learning for the Sake of Learning in Adulthood: A Phenomenological Study

Copeland, Frederick Lewis
Perceptions and Attitudes of Participating Soldiers Toward the Service Members Opportunity Colleges' Associate Degree Program and the Relationship of Selected Demographic Variables

Griggs, Franklin Keith
A Study of the Relationship Between Time and Task Priority for Continuing Education Administrators in Private Liberal Arts Colleges

Tuckwiller, Janet Elizabeth Echols
Proposed Recommendations for Specific Organizational Change in the Virginia Extension Homemakers Council: An Examination and Comparative Analysis of the Reactions of Club Members, Club Presidents, State Council Leaders and Extension Agent Advisors

Vitalis, Janet K.
The Experience of Completing a Mid-Life Career Change: A Phenomenological Study